Hiſtorical Account of GUILDFORD CASTLE, *Surry: with a beautiful View of the Remains of that ancient Edifice,*

OF this caſtle very little is mentioned in hiſtory; and not only Camden and Leland, but even Aubury and Salmon, who wrote the antiquities of this county, content themſelves with ſimply mentioning its exiſtence: neither is its founder, or the æra of its conſtruction, known. The firſt time it occurs in ſtory, is a little before the conqueſt; namely, in the year 1037, when it was the theatre where was acted the following tragedy.

Harold, ſurnamed Harefoot, being, by the intrigues of the earl Goodwin, acknowledged king of Weſſex, in oppoſition to the ſenſe of the people, which favoured Hardicanute, ſon of the late king, then abſent in Denmark, his mother Emma, an ambitious woman, fearful of loſing thereby her influence in the government, entertained the deſign of procuring the crown for her ſon Alfred, or his brother Edward, the fruits of her marriage with king Etheldred.

For this purpoſe ſhe obtained permiſſion of Harold to ſend for her two ſons from Normandy, whom ſhe had not ſeen ſince her ſecond marriage. Goodwin, who was a man of great ſagacity, ſoon perceived her intentions, although, to prevent ſuſpicion, ſhe pretended to be totally occupied at Wincheſter, in works of devotion; he, therefore, determined to get theſe princes into his hands, and, for this end, perſuaded the king to ſend them an invitation to ſpend a few days at his court. This invitation puzzled Emma, who ſaw the riſk of truſting them with a man whoſe intereſt it was to deſtroy them: but, on the other hand, hoping by their preſence at court, to form a party amongſt the nobility, without which ſhe could not entertain the leaſt hopes of ſucceſs in her machinations; ſhe therefore embraced what ſhe thought a medium between the two extremes; this was, to ſuffer one ſon to go, and to detain the other with her, under ſome ſpecious pretences; hoping that, in caſe Harold harboured any bad deſign, he would defer it till he had both the brothers in his power: Alfred accordingly ſet out, attended by a large retinue of Normans.

Goodwin had ſo contrived it, that the reception of the prince was deputed to his care; he accordingly met him at Guild Down, near this place, and with all ſemblance of reſpect and honourable treatment, brought him to Guildford Caſtle, under pretence of refreſhment. Here he throwed off the maſk; Alfred was immediately ſeized, conducted to Ely, and, after his eyes were put out, ſhut up in a monaſtery for life: his attendants, by order of Goodwin, were tortured with great cruelty, and afterwards twice decimated; that is, out of every ten, nine were killed, and only the tenth ſaved; and this was again repeated on the wretched ſurvivors of the firſt ſlaughter. Six hundred Normans, it is ſaid, were thus put to death.

In the year 1216, Lewis, the dauphin of France, having landed his forces at Sandwich, in Kent, the twenty-firſt of May, in conſequence of an invitation from the barons to accept the crown, poſſeſſed himſelf of this caſtle on the ninth of June following.

The tenth of Henry III. William de Coniers was governor of it for the king; as were afterwards, about the thirtieth and fifty-third year of the ſame reign, Elias Maunſel, and William de Aguillon; and in 1299, the 27th of Edward I. it was aſſigned to Margaret, the ſecond wife of that king, in part of her dowry.

In the 15th of Edward II. Oliver de Burdegala was governor, as ap-

pears by a writ of privy-ſeal, preſerved in Maddox's Hiſtory of the Exchequer, then directing that caſtle to be furniſhed with proviſions and munition.

It had been uſed as a common gaol, at leaſt, as far back as the 35th of Edward I. when Edward de Say, keeper of the king's priſoners there, had orders to repair it, if neceſſary. In the 41ſt of Edward III. it was given to the ſheriff both for a gaol and dwelling-houſe for himſelf: how much longer it was appropriated to that uſe does not appear. In the firſt year of Richard II. Sir Simon Burliegh, knight, was conſtable; from which time, there is a hiatus in the hiſtory of this caſtle, till the year 1611, when it was granted by King James I. to Francis Carter of Guildford, whoſe only daughter and heir married —— Goodyer, eſq. of Alton, Hants. Goodyer had two daughters, jointheireſſes; one married to —— Tempeſt, eſq. the other to Rolfe. Tempeſt had a ſon, and Rolfe a daughter, who married the reverend Mr. Loveday; which Loveday, and Tempeſt, junior, were joint proprietors.

This caſtle ſtands to the ſouth of the High ſtreet, on an eminence, overlooking, and within one hundred and fifty yards of, the river Wey; but is commanded towards the ſouth by a hill, which, at a ſmall diſtance, is higher than the top of the building. From the foundations of many walls, as well as ſeveral ſouterrains in the town, it is evident, that this was once a very extenſive building. Two of theſe are remarkable: one, the cellar of the Angel, on the north ſide of the High ſtreet, where there are ſeveral arches and pillars: the other, that of a private houſe on the ſouth ſide of the ſame ſtreet; it is a low vault, about eight feet high, ſupported by ſeveral ſhort ſtrong columns, from which branch out arches croſſing in different directions, all built of ſquared chalk.

The part of the caſtle now remaining was the Keep; it is nearly ſquare, each ſide meaſuring on the outſide forty-four, and its height ſeventy feet; the walls, which are of chalk, caſed on the outſide with ſand-ſtone and flint, are ten feet thick: in them are cavities, which ſhew the remains of ſeveral apartments: the window caſes are formed, ſome with ſtone, others with brick, ſaid to be Roman: theſe windows being near the top, the truth or falſehood of this aſſertion cannot be eaſily aſcertained. On the walls of what was the ſecond ſtory, are ſeveral rude figures, deeply ſcratched in the chalk, repreſenting a crucifixion; St. Chriſtopher carrying Chriſt; a king, or biſhop, lying at full length under a Gothic canopy, and a ſquare Saxon pilaſter. Whether theſe were done, as tradition relates, by a noble perſon confined here, or are the work of ſome wag to deceive the painful antiquary, it is difficult to determine.

The roof of this building was taken off about a hundred and fifty years ago, being then much decayed. This circumſtance is related by an inhabitant of Guildford, whoſe grandfather ſaw it done, being then about ten or twelve years of age. On the eaſtermoſt part of the ſouth ſide, is a ſmall machicolation: on the weſt ſide, leading to Caſtle-ſtreet, is ſtill remaining an ancient gate, which has a groove for a herſe, or portcullis; adjoining to this, and hereabouts, are ſeveral ſcattered pieces of wall.

In the chalky cliff on which the caſtle ſtands, about two hundred yards ſouth-weſt of that building, is a large cavern, or rather ſuite of caverns; the entrance is near Quarry-ſtreet, facing towards the weſt, from whence there is a ſmall deſcent into a cave, about forty-five feet long, twenty wide, and nine or ten high: near the entrance on either hand are two lower paſſages, which, when I ſaw them, were

nearly closed up by the fragments of fallen chalk; but, according to a plan made by Mr. Bunce, a stone-mason, anno 1763, that on the north side stretches towards the north-west seventy-five feet, opening by degrees from two to twelve feet: from this passage on the north-east side, runs five chambers, or cavities, of different sizes; the least being seventy, and the largest one hundred, feet in length; their breadths are likewise various, but all widen gradually from their entrance; the biggest, before mentioned, from two to twenty-two feet.

On the south side of the entrance, as I have before observed, is another passage which opens into a large cave, shaped somewhat like a carpenter's square, or the letter I, the angle pointing due south, its breadth upwards of thirty, and the length of its two sides taken together, above one hundred and twenty feet; the height of these excavations is not mentioned; neither is there any section annexed to the plan. For what purpose these places could be formed is not easy to guess; if only for the chalk, the workmen were bad œconomists of their labour.

A variety of ridiculous stories are told by the common people concerning this place, which, according to custom, is by them held to be a subterraneous passage leading to the castle.

THOUGHTS *on the Comparative Merits of* CICERO *and* DEMOSTHENES.

[By the late M. DELAHARPE.]

THE distinguishing qualities of Demosthenes are a close and pointed logic, and a forcible command over the passions and feelings of his auditors. Cicero, in general, proceeds in a different manner; he takes time to prepare the attention of his hearers; he seems carefully to weigh his force, and multiply his means. He neglects nothing, not even things unconnected with his cause, nor whatever may tend to raise his estimation as an orator; he seems determined to lose no advantage, and he is as much taken up with himself as with the question which he opposes, or defends. It is therefore, for this reason, that Fenelon, whose taste was so exquisite, gave the preference to Demosthenes, as an orator who reached more directly the end for which he employed his eloquence. Quintilian, on the contrary, seems to prefer Cicero, and it must be acknowledged, that between orators of such extraordinary merit and renown, the preference is rather a matter of taste, than of demonstration. Such has always been my opinion on comparisons of this description, which are so often introduced into literary discussions and conversations. I have uniformly asserted, that the important point for us, was, not to decide a pre-eminence which must always be problematical, when we weigh the different motives on both sides of the question, and the diversity of tastes, and talents, but to appreciate with discrimination, and impartiality, the distinguishing characteristics, and the peculiar merits of these renowned orators. Considering matters in this light, I shall now describe an impression that I have experienced, which seems to me a truth revealed by the Revolution, and which may produce similarity of sentiment among those who dispute concerning the superiority of one or the other of these orators. Until the period of the Revolution, I had always preferred Cicero, and even now I give him the preference

as a writer. But ſince I have had an opportunity of being preſent at deliberative aſſemblies, I have been induced to think that the manner of Demoſthenes would, perhaps, produce more powerful effects. We muſt not forget, however, that they are no longer conſidered by us, in any other light, than that of authors; we do not liſten to their harangues, we only read them; they do not now perſuade us, they only pleaſe by the beauty of their ſentiments and ſtyle. Philip and Æſchines, Anthony and Catiline, have been long judged by the unanimous voice of poſterity; it is the reſpective merits of the orators that occupy our attention, and this is an important conſideration; but with reſpect to the Greeks and Romans the matter was very different, the queſtion of debate was the moſt intereſting object to them, and the orator himſelf was but of ſecondary importance. They were both equally ſucceſsful by their eloquence, and exerciſed the ſame influence over the minds of their hearers; but at preſent I imagine that Cicero, who is maſter of every ſpecies of ſtyle and ornament, muſt be more generally admired by his readers than Demoſthenes, who does not poſſeſs the ſame advantages. Cicero is before his readers; he furniſhes them with more entertainment, and will be ſure of their ſuffrages; but before a numerous audience, Demoſthenes would be without a rival, his hearers would conſtantly exclaim, that reaſon was on his ſide, and that is certainly the principal end of eloquence. There are likewiſe other points of diſſimilarity between theſe orators, which are derived from the difference of government and character, which ſubſiſted between the Athenians and the people of Rome. There was no ſubdiviſion of power at Athens; the ſupreme authority was lodged in the people, and their political conſtitution was an abſolute democracy, a form of government which, Rouſſeau aſſerted, ſhould belong exclufively to ſmall ſtates. He thought it impracticable in extenſive countries, becauſe he had found no inſtance of it in hiſtory; but, perhaps, France will have the honour of ſetting the firſt example of that innovation, and replying to the objections of Rouſſeau*, as a man of ſenſe formerly refuted a ſophiſtical reaſoner that denied the exiſtence of motion, by walking in his preſence. As for the people of Athens, they were full of levity and fickleneſs, and deſirous of eaſe and pleaſure, and relied entirely on the reputation of their former greatneſs and renown. It was neceſſary to rouſe them by ſtrong emotions; and though the manner of Demoſthenes was undoubtedly the reſult of his natural talents and diſpoſition, it muſt have been modified, in ſome meaſure, by his acquaintance with the character of his audience. That was a kind of knowledge too important to eſcape the obſervation of a man of ſuch an excellent underſtanding as Demoſthenes was gifted with. His main object was, therefore, to ſtrike forcibly on the feelings of the liſtleſs multitude, being convinced, that if he allowed them time to pauſe, and hang in raptures on the beauties of his ſtyle and diction, every thing was loſt. The Athenians would forget every advice he offered, from an admiration of his eloquence, and would make a diſplay of their fine taſte, by violently applauding the muſic of his periods, and the ſplendor of his words. Demoſthenes was perfectly aware of ſuch an incident, and at the end of an harangue that was received with applauſe and admiration, he made uſe of the following remarkable expreſſions:——" Ap-

* The original of this article was written in 1796.

plaud not the orator, but act as he adviſes you;—it is not in my power to ſave the ſtate by my words, but you may poſſibly ſave it by your actions." When he had thus ſecured the approbation of the people, his object was attained: he was immediately commiſſioned to draw up the decree, according to the uſual form, which made the orator the object of the honour or the danger that might reſult from it. *By the advice of Demoſthenes, the Athenian people reſolves and decrees*, &c. We have a multitude of theſe decrees preſerved in the hiſtorians and orators of Greece. Matters were regulated in Rome after a different manner. In the Roman government there was a combination of powers, and a complexity of intereſt, which an orator ſhould endeavour to conciliate. Although the ſovereignty ultimately reſided in the people, without being theoretically acknowledged to be ſo, the practical government appertained to the ſenate, unleſs on the occaſions when the tribunes brought any matter before the aſſemblies of the people, and drew up a decree on the ſubject, to which the ſenate was bound to ſubmit. In order to paſs what was properly termed a law, the conſent of the ſenate and the people was requiſite, and from that circumſtance aroſe the frequent diviſions between the two orders, in which the people uniformly had the advantage, and what was ſtill more extraordinary, had always reaſon on its ſide. But a circumſtance that proves that the ſovereignty of the people was not clearly recognized, is, that all the public acts ran thus:—*Senatus populuſque Romanus*, which is contradictory, and according to theory ſhould be, *Populus ſenatuſque Romanus*. This eſſential difference, however, between the ſovereignty and the government has never been properly elucidated, unleſs in the writings of Sidney and Locke, particularly the latter, who is unqueſtionably the beſt logician that ever exiſted. In conſequence of this diviſion of power, the ſame queſtions were often agitated at the ſame time in the ſenate, and the aſſemblies of the people; and the difference of the audience required an alteration in the ſtyle of the eloquence employed on the occaſion. There were, beſides, ſeveral citizens poſſeſſed of vaſt influence, who of themſelves, and by their ſole credit and influence in the ſtate, had conſiderable weight in the ſcale of public opinion, and all theſe circumſtances muſt have been before the eye of the orator. The Roman people was much more ſerious, deliberate, moderate, and virtuous, than the people of Athens, and it may be ſaid with juſtice, that of all the free nations of antiquity they were by far the moſt unexceptionable. We often meet in their hiſtory with inſtances of moderation, which ſeem to be foreign to a multitude, whoſe ordinary movements are always marked by a portion of that virtue which is in the inverſe proportion of their force; and we know that moderation is nothing but a juſt balance between the affections, the virtues, and the duties of men. The virtue that is rarely found in the individual, is ſtill more rarely to be met with in a multitude, yet the virtue of moderation has been frequently diſplayed by the Roman people, and from this happy diſpoſition, it ſeemed naturally qualified to govern and command the nations of the world. This truth, which might give a new aſpect to Roman hiſtory, were it written by a man who ſhould unite the eloquence of the ancients with the philoſophy which they were often deficient in, is not generally underſtood, becauſe the Latin hiſtorians, without exception, diſcover more or leſs partiality to the ſenate. That body was certainly a very wiſe aſſembly, parti-

cularly as far as the external politics of the ſtate were concerned. On theſe occaſions their paſſions did not ſway their deliberations, not at leaſt before the period of general corruption. But with reſpect to internal government, it would be eaſy to prove that the people, on ſeveral occaſions, diſcovered more juſtice and moderation than the ſenate. In the hiſtory of no people can we meet with ſuch inſtances of virtuous feeling as among the Romans, particularly when the Roman army quitted their camp on the report of the death of Virginia (the firſt crime and the laſt of the decemviral tyranny), and entered Rome with banners diſplayed, without committing the ſmalleſt violence, confined themſelves to the eſtabliſhment of the legitimate authorities, brought Appius before the tribunals, and when he was condemned, admitted his appeal to the people, although he had himſelf abolithed the privilege of that appeal. The Roman people was proud, and juſtly ſo; it felt its force, without ever abuſing it: that conſtitutes real energy, the energy with which great actions are performed, and Brutus certainly aſſerted an important truth, when he thus expreſſed himſelf in a letter to Cicero: "There is nothing truly great, that is not founded on invariable principles." Corruption prevailed in Rome in the time of Cicero, but it is but juſtice to ſay, that it was infinitely more prevalent among the higher orders than among the maſs of the Roman people. Looſe morality in a public harangue would not have been endured from the roſtrum in the aſſemblies of the people, but it was ſometimes admitted in diſcuſſion in the ſenate, and was much more frequently viſible in the conduct of the members of that aſſembly. But at no period would Roman pride and ſeverity have ſubmitted to the bitter and humiliating reproaches that Demoſthenes addreſſed to the people of Athens. Cato alone indulged himſelf in ſuch reflections, but they were pardoned on account of his rigid ſtoiciſm, which was known to the public; his virtue was reſpected, without any regard to his political conduct, which, in reality, diſcovered few traces of prudence or wiſdom. He did little ſervice to the ſtate, becauſe he wanted that neceſſary degree of moderation which is ſo eſſentially requiſite, that ſcience which Tacitus happily characteriſes by his expreſſions, *tenere ex ſapientiæ modum*. Cicero rendered the moſt ſtriking ſervices to the republic, and well deſerved the glorious title of Father of his Country. After theſe obſervations, we muſt not be aſtoniſhed at two prevailing characteriſtics in the eloquence of Cicero, which are, inſinuation and ornament: inſinuation, becauſe he was compelled to obſerve with reſpect to the ſenate and the people, and in the courts of juſtice, a multitude of minute circumſtances of propriety, which Demoſthenes conſidered as immaterial; and ornament, becauſe elegance of ſtyle, which was introduced into Rome after the conqueſt of Greece, was a ſpecies of entertainment which was reliſhed in Rome, in proportion to the growing exceſs of luxury and refinement. Amidſt enjoyments of every deſcription, thoſe of wit and harmony of numbers were in conſiderable requeſt, and had grown into an enthuſiaſtic paſſion for the ornaments and beauties of compoſition. Elegance of expreſſion was the point chiefly regarded in pleadings and popular debates, and oftentimes law proceedings and conteſted trials were prolonged, more for the amuſement than the information of the judges. For theſe reaſons, Cicero paid the moſt ſcrupulous attention to the elegance of his diction, and the harmony of his periods. He knew from experience, that his

ſpeaking in the forum was conſidered as a ſort of public amuſement; that his ſpeeches in the ſenate were taken down, by the ſame method as we employ at preſent, that is, by means of ſhort-hand writers, who were termed by the ancients *Notarii*, or *Librarii*. And though elocution was equally conſidered by the Greeks and the Romans as the moſt eſſential, and the moſt difficult part of the art of oratory, becauſe it comprehended, in the language of the rhetoricians, not only all the figures of ſpeech, which form its chief ornament, but alſo all the figures of thoughts which are the ſoul of eloquence; yet I am inclined to think, that Cicero has ſucceeded better in the exactneſs and detail than Demoſthenes, and that he endeavoured to reach a degree of brilliancy and ſplendor of expreſſion, which Demoſthenes never aimed at; becauſe ornament was more in requeſt among the more refined part of a Roman audience, than among the motley multitude that liſtened to Demoſthenes It ſeems, indeed, to be acknowledged to be ſo by the critics; and ſuch of his contemporaries as piqued themſelves on their taſte, reproached Cicero with being too ornamented and affected in his ſtyle. Quintilian, his paſſionate admirer, endeavours to juſtify him on this head, and to refute thoſe whom he ſtyles pretenders to Atticiſm, who certainly carried their cenſures too far. Atticiſm conſiſted principally in a great purity of language, a total abſence of all affectation, and a certain noble ſimplicity, which had all the caſe of converſation, and at the ſame time a great ſhare of exactneſs and elevation. Demoſthenes excelled in this ſtyle, and poſſeſſed all theſe qualities in the higheſt degree. But this ſimplicity did not exclude ornament when naturally introduced, as thoſe faſtidious critics aſſerted, whoſe judgment, if followed, would have given birth to a meagerneſs and poverty of ſtyle, from too ſcrupulous an attention to ſimplicity of expreſſion. The true attic ſimplicity rejected nothing except affectation, and certainly Cicero is not affected with it; every thing in him flows from the ſource of nature and of truth, and though he does not ſeem to forget himſelf in the ſame degree as Demoſthenes, and appear only as the ſtateſman and man of buſineſs, yet he knows how to conceal his art, and you will only perceive it from the charms and ſuavity of his eloquence. The gravity of the diſcuſſions of the ſenate, which were neceſſarily different from thoſe of the popular aſſemblies, did not admit of that lively exhibition of natural paſſion, which Demoſthenes found neceſſary in order to fix the attention of the people of Athens. For this reaſon, the philippics of Cicero are not in general ſo animated as thoſe of the Grecian orator. The ſecond philippic, the moſt violent of all, was never ſpoken; indeed, it is different from the reſt, and is a violent invective againſt Anthony, in anſwer to a virulent harangue, which that triumvir pronounced in the ſenate during the abſence of Cicero. In the others, the object of which was to induce the ſenate to declare Anthony an enemy to his country, and to authoriſe Octavius to make war againſt him, Cicero had not ſo many obſtacles to encounter as Demoſthenes. The ſenate, or at leaſt the majority of its members, were the enemies of Anthony, and nothing more was requiſite than to direct their meaſures, inſpire them with confidence and reſolution, and to baniſh whatever diſtruſt they might entertain with regard to Octavius. Cicero was the ſoul of their deliberations, and it was he that drew up all their decrees. If during the debates of the ſenate, he ſometimes employed the vehemence of Demoſthenes, it was in

oppoſition to his declared enemies, ſuch as Catiline, Claudius, Piſo, and Vatenius. On other occaſions, he reſerved the thunder of his eloquence for the pathetic part of accuſations or defences, in which he had full ſcope for the fertility and variety of his invention; and on thoſe occaſions his talents ſhone forth with the greateſt ſplendor. But even in this part he is different from Demoſthenes, as the latter always aims directly at his enemy, and repeats his blows without intermiſſion; whereas Cicero ſeems to carry on a regular ſiege, to take poſſeſſion of all the avenues of attack, and employing his eloquence like an army, he ſurrounds his enemy on every ſide, until he finally cruſhes and overwhelms him with his united force.

OBSERVATIONS *on the* FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES *of* CHEMISTRY.

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THE ſtudy of phyſics embraces the wide circle of the external phenomena of nature, but in order that the human mind may be enabled to appropriate all the information which we acquire by obſervation, it will be neceſſary to examine the different phenomena under ſeveral points of view, and to ſeparate them into diſtinct claſſes. A regular diſtribution of this kind will eſtabliſh order in our ideas, and facilitate in an equal degree the progreſs of the learner who receives inſtruction, and of the man of learning who is deſirous of proceeding to new inveſtigations. There are in nature phenomena that depend on general laws, which are common to all kinds of bodies; ſuch as thoſe that originate from the laws of motion, of gravity, and of the action of heat. Phenomena of this deſcription are properly aſſigned to the department of General Phyſics. There are others which ſeem to belong to a certain diviſion of bodies, or to thoſe that depend on ſome particular conditions. They form a diſtinct branch of natural philoſophy, and among them we may claſs Electricity, Magnetiſm, and the properties of light and of ſonorous bodies. There are likewiſe general phenomena, which originate from the intimate action of the particles of bodies. This action may depend on organiſation, and the phenomena which it produces belong to animal or vegetable phyſics; or it is independent of organiſation, and the phenomena which reſult from it conſtitute the department of Chemiſtry. Chemical affinity, or attraction, is the principle of the intimate action of the particles of bodies, which we are obliged to ſeparate from vital action. This attraction muſt not be confounded with the general attraction, which acts in the inverſe proportion of the ſquares of the diſtances, and which is the cauſe of gravity and of the celeſtial phenomena which are the object of calculation. It takes place at inſenſible diſtances, but the apparent attraction and repulſions of bodies placed on a fluid, proceed from a ſimple mechanical preſſure. In an elementary courſe of Chemiſtry, it will be neceſſary to go through ſucceſſively, and produce experiments explaining the chemical properties of natural ſubſtances, beginning by thoſe that are moſt ſimple. That we may produce order in our ideas, it will be neceſſary to claſs ſubſtances by the properties which characterize them in the

moſt ſenſible manner; accordingly we muſt begin with the general arrangement of mineral, vegetable, and animal ſubſtances One ſubſtance ought not to be employed to act on others that are ſucceſſively ſubmitted to experiments, until we have arrived at an exact knowledge, by means of experiment, of the properties by which it may be qualified to become an agent. In this manner, facts become connected with each other, and theories are formed from the progreſſive improvement of ſcience. It will be neceſſary to form a general arrangement of thoſe theories, which being themſelves founded on chemical attraction, form the edifice of that ſcience; and this object will be attained by deducing them from the facts and experiments on which they are ſeparately grounded. Chemical attraction is the immediate cauſe of all diſſolutions, combinations, and compoſitions; by its complication it often produces effects ſeemingly oppoſite, but which are only the reſult of a greater ſum of force operating upon a ſmaller quantity. If the particles of bodies ſhould be obedient only to the force which tends to approximate and reunite them, they would then form an inert maſs; but theſe particles tend to ſeparate and fly off from each other, by means of a force which is every where ſpread over nature, and which is termed heat. The principle of heat, or caloric, may be conſidered as a very elaſtic fluid which penetrates into the particles of all bodies, and which exerts itſelf to ſeparate them. Under this point of view, its properties belong to general phyſics, or the knowledge of external nature. But it enters likewiſe into the combination of the bodies which act upon it by chemical attraction, and which by its means prevail over its elaſticity. Under this point of view, it belongs with propriety to Chemiſtry. From this property is derived the diſtinction between ſenſible heat and latent heat; on it likewiſe is grounded the theory of ſpecific heat, and combined caloric; a theory which requires an exact knowledge of the inſtruments employed to meaſure heat. Chemical attraction reſiſting the expanſive force of caloric is the foundation of all the phenomena of Chemiſtry. In order to trace its application, we muſt conſider the properties of the ſimpleſt bodies, and thoſe eſpecially which enter into the compoſition of other ſubſtances, and influence their properties. Simple bodies ought to be regarded by us not as the elements of matter, but only as the laſt reſults to which we have advanced by means of experiments. Before we paſs over the principal theories of Chemiſtry, it will be proper to obſerve the neceſſity of a ſeverity of method in performing experiments, which may prevent the conſequences from exceeding the real and legitimate concluſions. We muſt not, however, baniſh the conjectures of chemical explanations, as they are often the diſcoveries of genius, that ſurpaſſes the ſlow progreſs of truth; but we muſt attach to them only that degree of probability that ſeems to be their juſt ſhare.

Oxygen, when combined with caloric, aſſumes the ſtate of gas. It is a ſpecies of combination which transforms ſolids to a ſtate of fluidity, and fluids to a ſtate of vapour, or gas; however, this effect muſt not be conſidered as conſtant and uniform. The theory of elaſtic fluids and ſteam comes under the head of theſe phenomena. Oxygen forms water by its combination with hydrogen; and on diſcuſſing this ſubject, it will be proper to enlarge on the theory of the compoſition and decompoſition of water, and likewiſe on that of evaporation.

Oxygen with azote forms the ni-

tric acid. It will be neceſſary to unfold the theory of this formation, and of the phenomena of gunpowder. Azotic gas and oxygen gas being ſimply mixed, or ſlightly combined, compoſe the atmoſphere. Their proportions are determined by ſeparating one gas from the other by the action of ſome affinity; and it is from this circumſtance that eudrometers have originated, the differences of which it will be proper to explain. The atmoſphere owes a great part of the phenomena which it exhibits to the properties of water, and from this conſideration has ariſen the ſcience of hygrometry. Oxygen, with carbon, produces carbonic acid; from this formation, and that of water, is derived the theory of combuſtion, that of reſpiration, and the explanation of the properties of carbonic acid. Oxygen and azote form ammoniac, the properties of which ought to be unfolded. Hydrogen and carbon produce hydrocarbonate gas, which gives riſe to the theory of compound hydrogen gaſes. The combination of ſulphur with oxygen forms, according to the proportions, the ſulphureous and ſulphuric acids, which will conduct us to the theory of the formation of acids. Oxygen and muriatic acid give the oxymuriatic acid, the properties of which it will be neceſſary to diſcuſs, and explain its application to the arts. The fixt alkalies, which are to be conſidered at preſent as ſimple bodies, will afterwards fix our attention; we ſhall take a view of their combinations with acids, of the action which they apply to animal ſubſtances, and their combination with oils, which gives riſe to the art of making ſoap; we ſhall then proceed to examine the proceſſes of extracting mineral alkali from ſea ſalt, and by that meaſure make us independent of foreign commerce.

The ſimple earths come next in ſucceſſion after the alkalis. This ſubject will give riſe to diſcuſſions on the peculiar properties of different earths, with reſpect to the different productions of agriculture, and the principles that ſerve as the baſis of the manufacture of lime, of potteries, and glaſs-work. Metals are alſo ſimple bodies that form a great number of combinations, either with ſimple or compound bodies. Their combination with oxygen, or their combuſtion, is the ſource of a numerous claſs of phenomena. Oxided metals combine with acids, and produce ſeveral ſalts. They are precipitated by alkalis and by alkaline earths: metals are precipitated by their diſſolution, in proportion to their affinity to oxygen, and from theſe properties ariſes the theory of metallic diſſolutions and precipitations. Oxyded metals act in diſſolutions nearly in the ſame manner as alkalis and alkaline earths; but they have beſides the property of combining with alkalis, and then they perform the functions of acids. Theſe conſiderations lead to the theory of fulminating ſilver, and fulminating gold. Metals unite with each other, not by a ſimple mixture, but by a real combination, and from this circumſtance amalgamations and alloys derive their exiſtence.

By oppoſing other affinities to thoſe by which metals are united, their ſeparation is effected, and this gives riſe to the art of aſſaying, of parting metals, and the purification of bell metal. Metals combined with oxygen unite with other ſimple bodies, as for example, with ſulphur; it is in this ſtate that they are often found in nature, and from this conſideration ariſes the theory of the art of managing mines. Iron, which is the moſt uſeful of metals, combines with carbon, and by it acquires a new property; it forms ſteel, and from this property and the proportion of oxygen which remain after the reduction of the ore, we deduce the theory of caſting, of the refining of iron, of caſt ſteel,

and bar ſteel. After having conſidered the preperties of ſimple bodies and their combinations, it will be proper to proceed to the inveſtigation of thoſe combinations which are produced by nature, and which are, for the moſt part, the produce of vital action, either in vegetables or in animals. It will likewiſe be neceſſary to lay down the characteriſtics that diſtinguiſh vegetable from animal ſubſtances. In the principles that compoſe them will be found the cauſes of the phenomena of putrefaction, and of acid and ſpirituous fermentations. It will then be diſcovered that one of the principal cauſes of the changes which theſe ſubſtances naturally undergo, is occult combuſtion, or the ſlow combination of oxygen with hydrogen and carbon. From this circumſtance, the theories of animal heat and of digeſtion derive their origin. The colours that animate the picture of nature, and which are uſed to dye ſtuffs, are altered and deteriorated by the occult combuſtion which they experience. The art of dyeing conſiſts in fixing them in ſtuffs by an intermediate matter which reſiſts that effect, by modifying ſometimes their different ſhades by the colour to which it is properly allied. The action of nitric acid is analogous to that of occult combuſtion; it will ſerve to explain the formation of oxalic acid, and the tranſmutation of vegetable acids. Phoſphoric acid, which is one of the laſt reſults of the occult combination that takes place in animals, becomes the cauſe of many diſeaſes. Some metallic oxides produce cauſtic effects on animal ſubſtances, by means of the oxygen that ſeparates from them. The principal aſtringent, of which a variety is to be diſtinguiſhed, is one of the reſults of the occult combuſtion which takes place in vegetation, and in which the hydrogen being diminiſhed, the carbon predominates; and from this we deduce the effects of this principle in the arts of dyeing and tanning. Water, while it circulates in bodies ſpread over the ſurface of the earth, not only decompoſes itſelf, and reproduces itſelf, diſtributing life, or deſtruction; but alſo extracts, diſſolves, and attracts ſeveral particles that modify its properties, and from this circumſtance ariſes the art of aſſaying and preparing mineral waters. Theſe general conſiderations muſt ſerve to eſtabliſh a theory which is built on well grounded facts, and deciſive experiments, and the reſults of which have ſo much the more certainty as they are immediately derived from the ſubject in queſtion. But this theory, in order to be connected in all its parts, requires a profound knowledge of a multitude of facts and experiments, and of courſe a long application, and a cultivated and well diſciplined underſtanding. It is a great advantage in natural ſcience to be enabled to reduce ſeveral facts to one more general fact, without, however, elevating the mind to that order of ideas that preſuppoſes a variety of acquired knowledge. It will be proper to ſelect from Chemiſtry ſome partial notions that may be moſt uſeful to ſociety, that they may be diſſeminated in the primary ſchools, and thereby furniſh the pupils that iſſue from them with a correct idea of the phenomena of nature that muſt intereſt them more particularly, and an exact knowledge of the arts that are of the firſt neceſſity. In this manner they may acquire a knowledge of the nature of the atmoſphere, of the diſſolving power of air, and the formation of the meteors that depend on it. It will likewiſe be proper to teach them to diſtinguiſh acids from alkalis; to ſhew the uſe of the former in the knowledge of earths, and that of the latter for the domeſtic fabrication of ſoap, and of ſaltpetre,

A knowledge of the characteriſtic properties of earths may be very ſerviceable in agriculture, and tend to direct huſbandmen in the uſe of marl, the employment of ſand, and the choice of proper manures. With the different ſorts of clay which are ſpread over a great number of the departments, we have only bad pottery, and very inferior bricks. It will be eaſy to teach the pupils to chooſe the beſt clays, and to perform the neceſſary preparations in order to turn them to the moſt advantageous uſe. Cheeſe is one of the moſt uſeful products of rural economy, and its good qualities are, in a great meaſure, due to ſome circumſtances which may be eaſily explained. The goodneſs of wines depends in part on fermentation, which it is proper to direct according to the accidental qualities of the grape: it is likewiſe expedient to make known the circumſtances by which fermentation and its products may be modified. The art of directing heat in diſtillation, and in domeſtic operations, may be ſubjected to ſimple and obvious principles; and from the knowledge of theſe principles may reſult a great economy in fuel, and a more advantageous uſe of heat, throughout the whole extent of the republic.

It will be eaſy to ſelect other applications of this ſcience, relative to the place where inſtruction may be given; to render them familiar by a few experiments, and to bring to light the reſources which the productions of our ſoil preſent to the induſtrious cultivator.

REMARKS ON THE CHARACTER OF FRENCHMEN.

[By M. Duclos.]

OF all nations in the world the French are ſuppoſed to have varied leaſt in point of general character. The ſame characteriſtics have diſtinguiſhed them in every period and ſtate of ſociety. The Frenchman of the preſent time is viſible in the Frenchman of the era of the cruſades; and by going upwards to the ancient Gauls, we ſhall obſerve further marks of reſemblance.

That nation has always been famed for vivacity, gaiety, bravery, and generoſity; and has likewiſe been ſtigmatized for preſumption, inconſtancy, and want of conſideration. The good qualities of that people come from the heart, and their bad ones are derived from their intellectual defects: nevertheleſs, their failings are corrected or balanced by their amiable qualities, and every thing concurs, perhaps, in an equal degree, to make the French the moſt ſociable people in the world. The great defect of Frenchmen is, that conſidering themſelves always as young, and ſcarcely ever as men; by that fatal deluſion they are often rendered agreeable, but very ſeldom ſteady and conſtant to their purpoſe: they have no age of maturity, but make a ſudden tranſition from youth to decrepitude. Their talents diſcover themſelves at an early period, but they are neglected through diſſipation; and when they wiſh to turn them to advantage, the period for which they are deſtined is already paſt, and few Frenchmen are to be found who can rely on their own experience. They are the only people whoſe morals may be depraved without their hearts being corrupted, and their courage degenerating; they combine the heroic qualities with the purſuit of pleaſure, with luxury, and effeminacy; their virtues are not well balanced, nor are their vices durable and conſiſtent.

The character of Alcibiades is not uncommon in France. Though

irregular and capricious in their manners, and their habits of thinking, yet their diſpoſition does not totally diveſt them of frankneſs and a great ſhare of natural goodneſs of heart. Vanity inſpires them with the deſire of being amiable, and the more they pleaſe, the more deſirous they are of attachment and affection. That degree of frivolous vanity, which is injurious to the diſplay of their talents and good qualities, preſerves them, at the ſame time, from deliberate villainy and crimes of the deepeſt dye; perfidy is not familiar to them, and intrigue is foreign to their character. If, however, there have been inſtances of execrable and odious exceſſes among them, they have been found to diſappear from the influence of the national character, rather than from the ſeverity of their own laws.

CHARACTER OF THE JOURNALIST.

[By the Duke De Nivernois.]

AT a period when the progreſs of knowledge inſpires all ranks of people with a taſte for learning and an emulation of acquiring information, when, at the ſame time, they have not the leiſure nor even the patience to engage in deep ſtudy, Journals are very uſeful and even neceſſary, and the office of the Journaliſt is worthy to be exerciſed by talents of the firſt order, nor ought it to be entruſted to hands of a different deſcription. It is in the higheſt degree important to the intereſts of literature and morals, that the Journaliſt ſhould poſſeſs a combination of qualities, which are rarely found in any one man, a purity of taſte, and a fund of various learning, a good ſtyle of compoſition, and as much juſtice in his heart, as exactneſs and judgment in his underſtanding. The Journaliſt certainly exerciſes a ſort of public and legitimate function: he is a recorder, who, after inveſtigating the materials, the ſubſtance of which he extracts, cannot with ſtrict juſtice diſguiſe any thing, or exaggerate or omit any circumſtance in his report. His functions ought to be executed with rigour, and he ought to be impaſſable like the law itſelf. He is culpable, if the ſpirit of ſatire, or of partiality, ſhall induce him to palliate, or to aggravate faults; if he endeavours maliciouſly to diſcover defects, or if ſeduced by ſome private intereſt or attachment, he is ſtudiouſly only of ſetting off the beauties of a writer. But the critic thus never loſes ſight of his duty, and of the dignity of his office, and preſents his readers with a correct and accurate analyſis of every performance, with clear and legitimate concluſions, and with judicious and impartial reflections, will merit the grateful acknowledgments of every author and of every reader, and indeed of the Republic of Letters in general.

Observations *on the* Sap *of* Trees *and* Plants.

[By the late M. Daubenton, Profeſſor of Natural Hiſtory, and Member of the National Inſtitute in France.]

THE ſap of trees and plants is a liquid, without taſte, colour, or ſmell: it ſeems to be different from water. It belongs eſſentially to plants of every deſcription, and it has been preſumed that it performs the ſame functions with regard to plants, as the chyle, the lymph, or the blood, with reſpect to animals. Accordingly the veſſels which con-

vey it have been termed lymphatic, or common veſſels; though they might, with more propriety, be denominated ſap veſſels, for it is certain that they contain the ſap, but it is not equally certain that this liquid can be juſtly compared with the lymph. Theſe veſſels are the fibres which form the nets of wood, but we are yet ignorant whether the fibres have a cavity or not; if they are hollow, they are then really veſſels for conveying a liquid; if they have no cavity, they may nevertheleſs form veſſels by their reunion in maſſes, or bundles, and the cavities that will be found between the fibres will be conſidered as veſſels. Whatever may be the conſtruction of theſe veſſels, it is certain that they extend along the roots of the trunk, along the branches and boughs, and that they terminate at the extremity of the leaves, the bloſſoms, and the fruits. The quantity and the motion of the ſap increaſe very ſenſibly in ſpring, and continue, though in a leſs degree, until the rains ſucceed the heats of ſummer, as it uſually happens in the month of Auguſt. At that time the ſap reſumes its activity, and it is uſually termed the Auguſt ſap In winter, however, the motion of this liquid ſeems to ceaſe, though it ſtill produces ſenſible effects in the roots and buds of plants. It is certain that the ſap has a kind of motion in its veſſels; and many experiments have been made with a view to aſcertain, whether it was a circulation reſembling that of the blood in animals, or whether it was only a vertical courſe from top to bottom, or or from the bottom to the top, or otherwiſe oblique in every direction. Each of theſe opinions is ſupported by able and celebrated partiſans. Malphigi, Major, Parent, Mariotte, Lahire, &c. have maintained the circulation of the ſap. Dodart, Ducles, Magnol, &c. advance a contrary opinion. But the proofs furniſhed by either party are not ſuppoſed to decide the conteſt. It appears to me that the partiſans of the circulation of the ſap were too much prepoſſeſſed in favour of the analogy which they ſuppoſe to exiſt between the vegetable and the animal economy: they were inclined to believe, without reaſonable grounds, that the circulation of the blood in animals furniſhed a demonſtrative proof of the circulation of the ſap in the vegetable kingdom. For my part, I am of opinion, that it ſhould lead to a contrary concluſion: if they had compared even the beſt organized plant, a tree for inſtance, with an animal equally well organized after its own nature; as for example, any quadruped; on this ſuppoſition, it will be acknowledged that the number, the perfection, and the activity of their reſpective organs are ſo very different, that we ſhall have every reaſon to preſume a vaſt diſſimilarity in the firſt moving principle of the ſolid and fluid parts that compoſe the objects which are drawn into compariſon.

Although a tree may have its birth, its growth, and its decay, and death, like an animal, yet theſe general points of reſemblance are diſtinguiſhed by a marked difference in the organization, and the mechaniſm of their bodies: and though it may be eſſentially neceſſary to a tree to be provided with a moving fluid to preſerve its exiſtence, yet we ought not to conclude from that circumſtance, that this liquid circulates like the blood in animals, and that conſequently a tree is furniſhed with parts that correſpond to the heart, and to the arteries and veins, that ſerve as inſtruments and vehicles for the circulation of the blood in animals. In fact, ſimilar parts have never been diſcovered in vegetables. On the ſuppoſition of the circulation of the ſap, it will follow that it muſt make a com-

plete revolution in all the parts of the plant, ſeparately taken, ſince it has been obſerved that a tree does not die when it has been cut down cloſe to the ground, and that a great number of vivacious plants ſubſiſt during the winter, after they have loſt their entire trunks. Beſides the multiplication of plants by ſuckers, layers, and ſlips, would prove that all theſe parts had a complete circulation from the time when they were attached to the plant from which they were removed. It is therefore evident, that the courſe of the ſap is not a real circulation, but a movement in different directions, which can extend to every part of the plant, and ſubſiſt ſeparately in each. There is no difference of opinion reſpecting the motion of the aſcending and the deſcending ſap. The aſcending motion is the moſt evident: there are ſeveral proofs that eſtabliſh it, ſuch as the progreſſive movement of the ſap to the tops of trees, a great force of ſuction in the roots, the aſcenſion of the tears of the vine in tubes adapted to that plant, the tranſpiration of vegetables, &c. It ſeems that the ſap has leſs diſpoſition to deſcend than to aſcend, and that the productions of the deſcending ſap are weaker and leſs durable than thoſe of the aſcending. It is, however, placed beyond doubt, that the ſap deſcends from the top to the bottom of plants. It is proved by this circumſtance, that when a tree is planted near enough to two other trees, to be engrafted with them, by means of the contiguity of the branches, as ſoon as the grafts are well formed, we may pull down, or cut the engrafted tree without its decaying, becauſe the two other trees furniſh it, by means of the engrafting, with ſap ſufficient to keep it alive; we muſt therefore conclude that the ſap deſcends into all the parts of this tree, which are placed lower than the branches which are engrafted on it. We have another proof the deſcenſion of the ſap: when we make an inciſion on the trunk of a maple tree of Canada, in order to extract the lymphatic and ſaccharine liquid which it contains, it will be ſeen that the liquid flows only from the higher part of the inciſion.

If we ſtrip off an entire ring of bark, of the breadth of a few lines, from a branch of a vine one year old, at the beginning of ſpring, a knob or ſwelling takes place at each extremity of the excoriation; but the higher knob is larger than the lower, becauſe it is formed by the deſcending ſap, which is obſtructed in the place from which the bark has been ſtripped. When this happens, that part of the branch which is above the excoriation, is ſenſibly benefited by the ſtoppage of the ſap. The freſh annual coating becomes thicker near the ſear, and the grapes produced by this part of the branch ripen many days before the reſt, and are much larger than the grapes on the lower part of the branch. The ſame experiment has ſucceeded on the apricot, and ſeveral other fruit trees. Theſe obſervations prove that the ſap aſcends and deſcends in trees and plants; and it has likewiſe been proved that it has a lateral movement. Duhamel attempted an experiment on the body of a young elm, by making two inciſions a ſmall diſtance one above the other, and on the oppoſite ſide, and though theſe inciſions penetrated to the middle of the tree, the ſap aſcended to the top, although the direct and vertical courſe was interrupted by the two inciſions. Hales took two branches of equal ſize, and made two oppoſite inciſions on one of them; he afterwards immerſed the larger ends of both branches into ciſterns filled with water, and they pumped the water, and both tranſpired in an equal degree. He made this experiment more ſatis-

factory and deciſive, by making four inciſions, and placing them on four different ſides, ſo as to multiply the deviations of the ſap, and make it have recourſe more frequently to the lateral direction.

Many other experiments have been tried, all of which concur in proving that the ſap has not only lateral communications, but likewiſe communications in every direction. The facility which the ſap finds in the organization of its veſſels, to convey itſelf over every part of the tree, in different directions, has thrown obſtacles in the way of thoſe whoſe inveſtigations were directed towards diſcovering whether the ſap aſcends through the wood, or the bark, or between the wood and the bark. In order to ſolve theſe different queſtions, many efforts have been made, but none have been attended with complete ſucceſs. Duhamel, De la Baiſſe, and Bonnet made experiments on this head by means of injections, by plunging into a liquid, coloured by their lower extremities, branches taken from different plants; they cut off the parts immerſed, and afterwards they cleft ther emainder of the branch, in order to ſee to what height, and by what paſſage, the liquid had found its way upwards. In the opinion of Duhamel, theſe injections have proved inconteſtably that the ſap aſcends through the wood in trees, and by the ligneous fibres in plants, and they ſeem likewiſe to prove that the ſap never aſcends through the bark.

THE HISTORY OF ISABELLA DE RANCOURT.

THE Marquis de F——, was a branch of one of the moſt illuſtrious families in Normandy, and early in life he married Mademoiſelle de Rochefoucault, who was a near relation of the celebrated Duke of that name. They were both young, and notwithſtanding their exalted rank, love concured with fortune in forming an union which promoted the happineſs of both. Their mutual affection, as might be expected, was rewarded with the uſual pledges of love, and their family was increaſed to three boys, and two girls, whoſe playful infancy was a ſource of conſtant delight to their noble parents. After the uſual time, plans were laid for eſtabliſhing them in life, and the eldeſt ſon was appointed a cornet in a regiment of cavalry; his ſiſter took the veil in a convent at Angers, and the others continued to remain at home. The Marchioneſs was wonderfully fond of the ſecond ſon, and ſhe dreaded the circumſtance of his being obliged to enter into the army, and be expoſed to the dangers and fatigues of a military life. As for the third, he was deſtined, according to the cuſtoms of France at that period, to become an eccleſiaſtic; and had it not been originally the intention of his parents, they muſt have been induced to adopt it from the infirm ſtate of his health. The youngeſt daughter was a perfect beauty, and owing to that circumſtance and her tender age, her parents were not uneaſy with regard to her future eſtabliſhment in life. The ſecond ſon was the chief object of their care; the Marchioneſs was inceſſantly ſpeaking about her Ferdinand, and ſhe dreaded never having the happineſs of ſeeing him again, ſhould be be once removed from her ſight. As for Ferdinand, his thoughts ran entirely on dangers and adventures; he envied the happineſs of his eldeſt brother, who had already made two campaigns, and had received ſome honourable ſcars in the ſervice of his country; but as for the youngeſt, he made him the conſtant theme of his ridicule, and ludicrouſly ſtyled him Monſieur L'Abbé. Ferdinand

made a ſurpriſing progreſs in his ſtudies, and though not yet fourteen, was remarkable for the grace and vigour of his form. He excelled in every exerciſe that required ſtrength and activity, and could climb the higheſt trees and rocks, notwithſtanding the terror which his mother felt on ſuch occaſions.

The Marquis was ſtruck with the romantic and adventurous diſpoſition of his ſon, and from the early indications which he exhibited, concluded that the naval ſervice muſt be the beſt adapted to his talents. The Marchioneſs was alarmed at this declaration, but Ferdinand exclaimed that he was delighted with the idea, and conceived magnificent hopes of glory and preferment from that ſervice. "My brother," ſaid he, "may poſſibly arrive at the command of a company, and that will be the *ne plus ultra* of his ambition; but I ſhall probably be captain of a man of war, vice-admiral, or governor of ſome rich poſſeſſion in the Eaſt or Weſt Indies, from which I ſhall return with an immenſe fortune, and make you happy in the decline of your days."

An opportunity ſoon occurred, that ſerved to gratify the wiſhes of Ferdinand, and add to the affliction of his mother. The Count D'Arlemon, who lived in the neighbourhood, was one of the moſt intimate friends of the Marquis; he had formerly been an admiral in the French ſervice, and was a man of great bravery and ſtrict honour. His ſon was alſo in the navy, and as he was an only child, the Count had brought him up with too much indulgence. The young Viſcount was of a perverſe and vicious diſpoſition, and a few voyages to the colonies had concurred with the indulgence of his father in leading him into ſcenes of villainy and debauchery. He had connected himſelf at Paris and Toulon with a herd of profligate companions, who led him into ſeveral ſcrapes, for which he was in conſtant apprehenſion of being brought to account by the laws of his country However, the ſervices of his father were ſuch a powerful recommendation, that he was appointed to the command of a frigate of thirty guns, which was equipped at Toulon, in order to cruize againſt the corſairs of Barbary. This appointment, inſtead of kindling his zeal for the ſervice, inſpired him with the criminal idea of concerting a plan with his wicked companions, by which they agreed to ſeize on the frigate, and carry it into ſome of the ports of Barbary, and ſell it to the power with which they were at war.

Young Ferdinand having been acquainted with this villain, through the means of his father, and hearing of the intended expedition againſt the Algerines, burned with a juvenile and military ardour to embark, and commence his career in the naval ſervice. Notwithſtanding the reluctance of the Marchioneſs, Ferdinand departed with Arlemon, who had the addreſs to bring with him ſeveral young gentlemen from the ſame neighbourhood. They had not been long together, before Ferdinand perceived the villainy of his commander, and wiſhing to be removed from his control, he prepared a letter to his father, requeſting to be transferred to another ſhip. Arlemon contrived to intercept the letter, and dreading any further proceedings to his prejudice, from the youths whom he had engaged to ſerve with him, he ſent them on board the frigate, and ordered them to be kept under cloſe arreſt. On this occaſion, Ferdinand began to repent his temerity in quitting his father's houſe upon ſo wild an enterpriſe, but through the natural levity of youth he and his companions ſoon reſumed their uſual

gaiety. They had not been long on board, when a favourable breeze ſprang up, and the frigate put to ſea, with orders to cruize in the Mediterranean, and protect the commerce of France from the depredations of the corſairs. A few days after, a ſignal was made that announced the approach of an Algerine veſſel. On this occaſion, Arlemon ordered Ferdinand and his companions into the hold, and as he had previouſly concerted meaſures with the Algerine commander, he ſurrendered the frigate after the firſt broadſide; and by means of his aſſociates prevented any reſiſtance from the crew. Arlemon was appointed lieutenant, in addition to the other rewards of his treachery, and as the wicked are conſtantly ſuſpicious of each other, he hinted to the Algerine the neceſſity of putting his accomplices into chains on board the Algerine veſſel. This adviee was immediately put into execution, and the commander determined to diſpoſe of the crew of the frigate as ſlaves, including Ferdinand and his aſſociates. They arrived at Algiers without meeting any reſiſtance, but the villainous Arlemon was ſtabbed on his landing by one of his former aſſociates, who was immediately impaled for the murder; and thus two of the promoters of this ſcene of wickedneſs periſhed by an untimely death. Shortly after their landing, the whole crew was ſold as ſlaves to different inhabitants of Algiers, but the Bey being ſtruck with the beauty and vivacity of Ferdinand, ſelected him for himſelf, and he was obliged to ſeparate from his young companions, who were grievouſly afflicted with this addition to their misfortunes. The Bey ordered him to be ſent to his villa, which was ſituated within a few miles of Algiers; and wiſhed that he ſhould act as preceptor and companion of his ſon, whom he might initiate in the knowledge of the French language. Ferdinand found the young prince very docile and intereſting, and a ſtrong attachment ſoon took place between the youthful preceptor and his pupil. Several years had elapſed without any extraordinary event taking place in the family of the Bey, nor did any circumſtance occur that interrupted the friendſhip between Ferdinand and Effei-Amet, (that was the prince's name), and the progreſs that the latter made in the French language, and ſuch other parts of learning as Ferdinand could undertake to inſtruct him in, was very ſurpriſing, and contributed not a little to the ſatisfaction of the prince's father.

Ferdinand and Effei-Amet were now in the bloom of youth and vigour, and were remarkable for the grace and elegance of their perſons. The Bey was deſirous of procuring a beautiful female ſlave, that might fix the affections of his ſon, and had already promiſed a liberal reward to any of the dealers in ſlaves that ſhould ſatisfy him in that particular. It happened at this time, that a veſſel from Tunis had anchored in the harbour of Algiers, and had on board a very beautiful female ſlave, which the proprietor had originally deſtined for the uſe of the Grand Sultan. Having heard, however, that the Bey of Algiers would liberally reward the proprietor of a ſlave of this deſcription, he loſt no time in preſenting her before him, and was rewarded for his aſſiduity by a price conſiderably above his expectations. The Bey was ſtruck with admiration at the beauty and elegance of his captive, and was much delighted with his acquiſition. The ſlave was named Iſabella de Ranconrt; ſhe was of a genteel French family, and had been carried off from the coaſt of Provence, on the day that her father was on the point of marrying her with a man to whom ſhe had conceived a violent averſion. Iſa-

bella was a beauty of the firſt order; her ſhape and ſtature were ſtrikingly elegant, and her fine blue eyes beamed with love and ſenſibility. On her entrance into the Bey's apartments, Effei-Amet and Ferdinand were ſtruck motionleſs by her charms, and both diſcovered by their eyes and geſtures every ſymptom of love and admiration. The generous prince, however, having perceived the agitation of Ferdinand, and the involuntary proofs of the unguarded tenderneſs which Iſabella ſeemed to experience for his friend, determined to relinquiſh all idea of the captive, and concede his pretenſions to Ferdinand, under the aſſumed plea of his own indifference reſpecting Iſabella. The Bey was aſtoniſhed at the coldneſs and inſenſibility of his ſon, but never could draw any explanation from him that accounted for his neglect of Iſabella, nor could he diſcover in him any traces of a paſſion for her, or any other female at his court. In the mean time, Ferdinand became a prey to the moſt violent paſſion for the amiable Iſabella, and the effects of his love were ſoon diſcovered by the vigilant eye of the young prince. The latter perceiving a ſudden change in the manners and temper of his friend, contrived, by the moſt ardent demonſtrations of attachment, to draw the ſecret from him, that was the real cauſe of his uneaſineſs.

Though the prince himſelf was captivated with the charms of Iſabella, yet friendſhip on this occaſion prevailed over love, and Effei-Amet conſigned over to Ferdinand all his claims to the object of his friend's affection. He even gave orders that the doors of the ſeraglio ſhould be opened to him, that he might have opportunity of communicating his ſentiments to Iſabella. Ferdinand did not fail to turn this indulgence to his own advantage; and having been favoured with an interview with the charming Iſabella, he diſcloſed his paſſion to her in the moſt tender and flattering terms. Though Iſabella was greatly prepoſſeſſed in his favour, and even felt the ſymptoms of a growing paſſion, yet ſhe did not encourage him in the degree he expected; however, after much entreaty, ſhe gave him hopes of favouring his addreſſes, provided all the formalities and cuſtoms of European nations ſhould be obſerved between them, and that ſhe ſhould not be treated according to the ſlaviſh and debaſing practice of the Mahometans. This declaration was highly ſatisfactory, as he thought that it amounted to a poſitive promiſe in his favour, and by means of his intereſt with the Bey, he had no doubt of being enabled to accompliſh his purpoſe. He ſoon communicated his intentions to Effei-Amet, but the latter ſeemed to liſten to him with an air of concern that ſurpriſed Ferdinand. The young prince declared that he intended to proceed on a military tour, and make a general inſpection of his father's troops, becauſe he had reaſon to ſuppoſe that Zamolan Mahomed, his uncle, had formed a plan for attacking his father's dominions, and making himſelf ſovereign of Algiers.

This reſolution was a ſource of uneaſineſs to Ferdinand, who, though his heart was occupied with love, felt a deep regret on account of the intended departure of the prince. The generous Effei-Amet recommended Ferdinand to the Bey before he ſet out on his expedition, and requeſted him to appoint his friend governor of the fortreſs of Tunis, which demand was carried into execution ſhortly after the prince's departure. No ſooner had Effei-Amet proceeded on his journey, than Ferdinand, glowing with all the impatience of love, haſtened to the ſeraglio, and earneſtly ſupplicated his miſtreſs to

conſent to make him happy. Iſabella, after ſome heſitation, conſented to accept of his hand and heart; and Ferdinand having procured the co-operation of a French miſſionary who reſided at Algiers, they were ſhortly after united in matrimony, according to the forms of their religion and their country. Ferdinand was now completely happy in the poſſeſſion of Iſabella, and ſome time elapſed before he began to feel the abſence of the prince. By degrees, however, friendſhip reſumed its influence over his heart, when the tumults of love were ſuſpended; and he addreſſed ſeveral affectionate letters to the prince, requeſting him to ſend a governor to command at Tunis in his place, that he might have the happineſs of attending him in the camp. The meſſenger ſoon returned with an anſwer from the prince, in which he begged Ferdinand not to give himſelf any uneaſineſs on his account, nor quit the object of his affections for the hardſhips of military ſervice.

Though the prince in his letter made no mention of his health, yet the meſſenger could not avoid hinting to Ferdinand, that his friend was in a very dangerous ſituation. Upon receiving this information, Ferdinand wrote to the Bey, requeſting to be removed from the command of the fortreſs, and to have permiſſion to viſit his friend. The Bey did not heſitate to comply with his requeſt, and Ferdinand, notwithſtanding the ſtruggle it coſt him to leave his adored Iſabella, poſted off with impatience to the camp. His affliction was extreme, when on entering Effei-Amet's tent, he beheld him pale and emaciated, and exhibiting every ſymptom of a mortal illneſs. After the moſt tender demonſtrations of mutual friendſhip, Ferdinand gently chid the prince for not acquainting him with his illneſs, and declared that no object in the world would have prevented him from endeavouring to come to his relief, and by his aſſiduities to mitigate the pains and ſorrows attending on his ſituation. The prince replied to Ferdinand in the moſt affectionate manner, and declared that he felt himſelf wonderfully relieved by the preſence of his friend. Ferdinand endeavoured to diſcover the cauſe of the illneſs that preyed upon the prince, but Effei-Amet declined giving him any direct anſwer, and teſtified ſo much ſatisfaction at having the happineſs of his friend's company, that Ferdinand attributed his complaint to exceſſive fatigue, and the uſual hardſhips of military ſervice, to which the prince had never been accuſtomed. It never occurred to him, that the charms of Iſabella had made a deep and laſting impreſſion on the heart of his friend, and that his paſſion and the violent ſtruggles which he made to ſuppreſs and conceal it, were the real cauſes of his alarming illneſs.

After his arrival in the camp, Ferdinand was unremitting in his attendance on the prince, and employed every exertion in his power in order to recover his health and ſpirits; and the prince, who found much ſatisfaction in the company of Ferdinand, actually regained a great ſhare of his former health and vivacity, and teſtified a ſtrong deſire to proceed to attack the forces of Zamolan Mahomed. Ferdinand was reſolved to ſhare the glory and the dangers of the prince, and the troops were ſoon put into motion, under the command of the Bey and his ſon. The latter behaved with the greateſt gallantry, and by his good conduct on ſeveral hazardous occaſions, contributed eſſentially to the defeat of Zamolan-Mahomed. The prince expoſed his perſon in the fury of the combat, nor could the preſſing remonſtrances of Ferdinand diſſuade him from the moſt perilous attempts.

"You, my dear Ferdinand," ſaid Eſſei-Amet, "are completely happy; do not, therefore, expoſe yourſelf to the fury of the enemy; as for me, I am a wretched being, and when death approaches, I ſhall welcome the blow." In the mean time, Zamolan Mahomed being preſſed on every ſide, and ſeeing his beſt troops deſert to the enemy, made propoſals to the Bey for an accommodation of differences. The latter refuſed to grant him any demand beyond a ceſſation of hoſtilities for three months, and even this he would not have conceded in his favour, were it not from a deſire of allowing him time for the re-eſtabliſhment of the prince's health.

A truce was accordingly ſigned, and Zamolan retired into the deſert with his diſcomfited force. The victorious Eſſei-Amet led back his army to the walls of Tunis, whither an irreſiſtible impulſe directed his ſteps; he wiſhed once more to reviſit the ſpot where he had paſſed ſo many happy moments with his dear Ferdinand, and where he firſt beheld the charms that were deſtined to ſubdue his heart.

When Iſabella heard the warlike muſic that announced the triumphs of the prince, her heart fluttered with the livelieſt ſenſations of joy, at the approach of Ferdinand, who eſcaped unhurt from all the perils of war. Ferdinand removed her from the ſeraglio, into his own apartments, where Eſſei Amet awaited his arrival. When the latter beheld Iſabella, a ſudden ſhivering ſeized on him, and he fell back on a couch, on which he was compelled by feebleneſs to reſt himſelf; his eyes cloſed, and a deadly paleneſs overſpread his face. Alas! cried Ferdinand, why am I happy only by halves! When I return to be bleſt in the arms of my wife, muſt I witneſs the afflictions and ſickneſs of my deareſt friend! He then preſſed Eſſei-Amet to his breaſt, endeavoured to raiſe and revive him, and recal the fleeting ſpirit of life Iſabella joined in the tender offices of Ferdinand, and by their united efforts they ſucceeded in reſtoring the ſenſation of the unhappy prince. "I ſtill exiſt," ſaid he, as he opened his eyes, that ſeemed to be cloſed by the hand of death, "and enjoy the happineſs of ſeeing my friends once more; this bleſſing is to be of ſhort duration, and I am ſenſible of the full value of the reſpite which I feel from pain." Ferdinand and Iſabella then entreated him to forego the language of deſpair, and aſſured him that by their endeavours a period ſhould be put to his ſufferings. "My ſufferings," replied the prince, "muſt ſhortly end; ſince I have found my friends once more, I ſhall be happy to die in their arms, and what greater bliſs can I experience?" "May heaven avert the omen," ſaid Iſabella, "the God of juſtice will not ſuffer his moſt perfect image on earth to become a prey to ſorrow and affliction." At theſe words of Iſabella the prince lifted his hand from the couch, and turning towards her with a mournful aſpect, he ſaid, "Ah! Iſabella, it is not from you that I expect any encouragement to live." From theſe expreſſions a ray of light broke in on Ferdinand. "Alas!" cried he, "my deareſt maſter, you have ſacrificed your life to promote my happineſs." "I believe that I have little hopes of life," replied the unhappy prince, "for it is impoſſible that art can remedy the evils that a dreadful paſſion has inflicted on me, and which I have long ſtruggled to ſuppreſs. The firſt moment that I ſaw Iſabella, my fate was decided; love took poſſeſſion of my heart, but as I perceived that you were captivated at the ſame time, I devoted myſelf to eternal ſilence, and quitted the beloved ſcenes of my youth and innocence. I imagined that the tu-

mult of camps, and the paſſion for glory, would extinguiſh in my breaſt the flames which the charms of Iſabella had kindled, but my reſolution was not proof againſt the invincible ſuperiority of love. In the midſt of battles and of ſlaughter, I ſought to revenge myſelf on others for the cruel torments that I endured. I was inſenſible even to the charms of glory and of victory, and the ceſſation of hoſtilities I conſidered only as the prolongation of my miſery. Still I could not reſiſt the deſire that I felt of ſeeing Iſabella once more; and now, my friend, I have made a candid and a faithful avowal of the ſecrets of my breaſt." "Heavens!" cried Ferdinand, "muſt I be the involuntary cauſe of the death of my friend and benefactor!" Iſabella, whoſe breaſt was agitated with the deepeſt ſorrow, was now on the point of quitting the apartment, when the unhappy prince exclaimed: "Do not deprive me of the only conſolation that I have left, and which I have only a few moments to enjoy. But let this dreadful ſecret be buried in everlaſting oblivion: above all, let not my father be informed of my fatal paſſion, as you well know his affection for me, and he might, perhaps, in the exceſs of his grief, be guilty of injuſtice towards you, as the original cauſe of my diſſolution. It is my earneſt requeſt that my father may be kept ignorant of this unfortunate affair, and that you will endeavour to conſole him for the loſs of a ſon, whoſe place, I hope, you will ſupply. Grant me this laſt favour, my dear Feadinand, and let me have your ſolemn promiſe." "Alas! my deareſt friend," replied Ferdinand, "what promiſe can I make, when my ſoul cannot endure the idea of ſurviving you?" "Behold Iſabella," replied the prince, "and conſider whether life, with the poſſeſſion of her charms, is not a bleſſing; and do not deprive me, by your deſpair, my deareſt Ferdinand, of the merit of the ſacrifice which I have made on your account. But I perceive that I am now becoming conſiderably worſe, and I beg that you will ſend a meſſenger to my father, to acquaint him with my ſituation. I ſhould not like to expire before I receive his benediction." Ferdinand loſt no time in executing the orders of his friend; and the Bey, when he learned the dangerous ſituation of his ſon, mounted one of the ſwifteſt of his horſes, and ſoon made his appearance in the apartments of the prince. On beholding the afflicting ſtate of his ſon, the Bey diſcovered every ſymptom of exceſſive grief; he preſſed him in his arms, and frequently invoked the Great Prophet, and accuſed him for the miſery which he experienced from the calamitous ſituation of his beloved Eſſei-Amet. The prince continued calm in the midſt of the pangs that he endured; he endeavoured to conſole his father, and his ſurrounding friends, by aſſuring them that death, at a period when all the faculties are in their full vigour, was infinitely leſs lamentable, than when it has been uſhered in by a tedious and afflicting old age. "I might (ſaid he) have lived to lament the loſs of a father, and perhaps of my friend; the chances of war might have reduced me under the power of Zamolan, and brought ſlavery on my children and my ſubjects: but at preſent, I die with the affection of my father, and the glory which I have obtained by defeating the enemies of his throne. I leave behind me a faithful friend, who may aſſume my place, and transfer the attachment of a ſon, as well as of a friend, to the author of my birth." The prince then recommended Iſabella and Ferdinand, in the warmeſt terms, to the Bey, and requeſted him to cheriſh them when he ſhould be no more. His father made him

a ſolemn promiſe to that effect, and then turning to Iſabella and Ferdinand, he took both their hands, and ſaid: "I adopt you as my children, and you ſhall ſucceed to my throne after his deceaſe; as for me, I am ſenſible that I ſhall not be able to ſurvive the loſs of ſo dear a ſon." In the mean time, the phyſician perceiving that ſuch ſcenes of affliction contributed to increaſe the illneſs of the prince, prevailed on the Bey and his friends to moderate their exceſſive grief. Their attentions, and particularly thoſe of Iſabella, ſeemed to ſuſpend for a while, the deſtiny of the unfortunate Effei-Amet. He was not ignorant that his hour was approaching, but from regard for thoſe he loved, he ſuffered them to entertain momentary hopes of his recovery. A month paſſed in this manner, between the alternatives of health and ſickneſs: youth, and vigour of conſtitution, ſtruggled violently againſt a malady which the continual preſence of Iſabella rendered incurable. The prince, however, experienced a ſort of pleaſure in his ſufferings, and not being able to live for love, he indulged the pleaſing anguiſh of dying from the wounds which it inflicted; and filled with theſe melancholy ideas, he ordered himſelf to be conveyed into his delightful gardens. His attendants carried him to an arbour of orange trees, and other delicious plants, where he reclined on a bed of moſs, with his head leaning on his father's boſom, and his hands locked with thoſe of Ferdinand and Iſabella. On this occaſion he ſeemed to be abſorbed in ecſtacy, and he exclaimed: "How pure is the air of this place, and how gently the zephyrs careſs this blooming ſpot. The flowers exhale a moſt delicious fragrance, and the birds ſalute the rays of the ſetting ſun, and retire to their ſhades. To-morrow they will riſe with the dawn of day, and I ſhall calmly ſlumber in the arms of friendſhip and of nature. O thou, who art the Father of the Univerſe, liſten to my prayers; protect my ſurviving friends, defend them from the attacks of the wicked, and let them live long to cheriſh the memory of their friend! And thou, O deareſt father, give me thy benediction, and may our holy Prophet reunite us once more in the regions of eternal bliſs!" He then pauſed, and breathed a gentle ſigh: he ſeemed to ſink into the arms of ſleep; but Iſabella perceiving his hand grow cold, gave a piercing ſhriek. The Bey preſſed his lips on the expiring lips of his ſon, but he made no reply, nor ſign, at this mark of tenderneſs. Ferdinand threw himſelf on the bed, and endeavoured to revive his ſinking friend;—his efforts were uſeleſs——Effei-Amet had breathed his laſt.

The unfortunate Bey, on this occaſion, was afflicted beyond the power of deſcription, and had it not been for the aſſiduities and kind attentions of Ferdinand and Iſabella, he muſt have ſunk beneath the weight of his miſeries. By their cares, he recovered ſome degree of his former ſerenity, but the impreſſion was too deep to be effaced by the length of time. His health began gradually to decline, and he ſhortly after began to feel every ſymptom of the decays of nature.

By means of Ferdinand, he was relieved from the cares and the fatigues of government, and it was a matter of lively ſatisfaction to him to witneſs the attachment which his ſubjects felt for his adopted ſon, and the amiable Iſabella. When the Bey perceived that his end approached, he made over his right of the ſovereignty of his dominions to Ferdinand and Iſabella, and their deſcendants, which was fully recognized by his councils, and the people at large. After his deceaſe, which happened a few days after

this ceremony, Ferdinand was invested with all the chief authority, and enjoyed a long and happy reign, which was sweetened by the charms and affections of Isabella, and the generous attachment of the nation over which he had been appointed to rule.

EXTRACT *from the Manuscript of an intended Second Volume of* FRAGMENTS *of* LETTERS *and other* PAPERS, *&c.*

[By JOHN WALKER, M.D.]

CVI.

London; 27, iii, 1802.

Atrocity of a Fur-Trader—Resentment of the Indians—Their sufferings from the Small-pox—Introduction of Cow-pox.

DURING the printing of the first volume, I have been led, from local situation even, into a train of reflections, of which, together with some narrative, I now go to make another Fragment.

When an individual, in a civilized nation of the present day, arriving from the country, reaches the seat of his government, the principal town of the empire, the objects which strike his eye carry him, in imagination, to the remote parts of the country; nay, to the ends of the whole earth. At St. James's, or the Thuilleries, he may say—here are the heads which devise the plans whereby the police or social order is maintained at home, or whereby the world is kept in an uproar. In the warehouses of the merchants and commercial companies, of the western nations of Europe, he may cast his eyes over the bales, chests, or hogsheads, piled over each other, and say, "Where did they all come from? By what means were they got together?" A full answer to his questions would include a history of the earth.

A warehouse of the Hudson's Bay Company adjoins this printing-office. The roof of it does not quite reach our windows; but it contains what came from afar; what was probably gained through much peril. It would be well if all concerned would act honourably in the traffic, then might the hunter and the trader be mutually useful to each other.

I learn from Mackenzie's Travels, that, in the winter of 1778-9, a company of Canadian traders encamped on the banks of the Elk River, about thirty miles from the Lake of the Hills, into which it empties itself. Here they saw a vast concourse of Indians, of the Knisteneaux and Chepeweyan tribes, who were highly gratified in seeing them come to their country, to relieve them from such long, toilsome, and dangerous journeys, as they were accustomed to take annually to Churchill with their furs. Most of the traders, who passed the winter at Saskatchiwine, got to the Eagle Hills, where, in the spring of 1780, having a number of natives drinking about their houses, and one of them making himself troublesome by his importunities, a trader gave him a glass of grog, with a dose of laudanum in it, which effectually silenced the poor Indian. It threw him into a sleep, from which he waked no more. This murder produced a fray, wherein several were killed, and the remaining adventurers only escaped by a flight so precipitate that they were obliged to abandon a considerable quantity of goods, and nearly half of the furs which they had collected during the winter and the spring. Two of the establishments on the Assiniboin River were attacked about the same time; and the natives seemed to

have formed the reſolution of extirpating the traders. One of the greateſt calamities that could have befallen the natives, introduced, it was ſuppoſed, by the viſit of a war party, from the Miſſiſoaic, ſaved the traders from deſtruction: this was the ſmall-pox, which ſpread its deſolating power, as the fire conſumes the dry graſs of the field. It deſtroyed, with its peſtilential breath, whole families and tribes; and the horrid ſcene preſented to thoſe who had the melancholy and afflicting opportunity of beholding it, a combination of the dead, the dying, and ſuch as, to avoid the horrid fate of their friends around them, prepared to diſappoint this plague, or peſt, of its prey, by terminating their own exiſtence. To aggravate, if poſſible, the doleful picture, the putrid carcaſes were dragged forth from the huts by the wolves, with a furious voracity; or mangled within them by the dogs, whoſe hunger was ſatisfied with the disfigured remains of their maſters. Since that time, the contagion has ſpread among other diſtant tribes, and continued to produce moſt deſolating effects. The population of the extenſive wilds of North America ſeems thus to be threatened with more deſtructive attacks than it has yet felt by the deadly preſent of ſpirituous liquors from the Whites, which ſeems already to have made greater havoc among the Indians, than fire-arms or the deſtructive ſword. It is to be hoped, however, that Thomas Jefferſon, the preſent Preſident of the United States, from the intereſt which he takes in helping to diffuſe the diſcovery of Jenner among his fellow-citizens, in co-operation with Benjamin Waterhouſe, M. D. will have the happineſs to render the ſame ſervice to their Indian neighbours.

P. S. The above hope, expreſſed during the printing of the firſt volume of Fragments, has been realiſed. Cornplanter, and a number of other Indian chiefs, have come down to Philadelphia, and been vaccinated. They have alſo been inſtructed in the propagation of the benefits of what they conſider a diſcovery from the Great Spirit, put into the mind of one of the white people, for the benefit of his brothers of every colour.

ON UNANIMOUS VERDICTS OF JURYMEN.

JUDGE BLACKSTONE, in his Commentaries, ſays, when ſpeaking of the Trial by Jury, that it is a duty which every man owes to his country, his friends, his poſterity, and himſelf, to maintain, to the utmoſt of his power, this valuable conſtitution in all its rights; to reſtore it to its ancient dignity, if at all impaired by the different value of property, or otherwiſe deviated from its firſt inſtitution; and to amend it wherever it is defective. After which, he mentions ſeveral defects, but takes no notice of the inconſiſtency and hardſhip of obliging the Jurymen to bring in an Unanimous Verdict. That this forced unanimity has been objected to, will appear by the following extract, from "Additional Papers concerning the Province of Quebec, being An Appenpix to the Book entitled, An Account of the Proceedings of the Britiſh and other Proteſtant Inhabitants of the Province of Quebec, in North America, in order to obtain a Houſe of Aſſembly in that Province." London, 1776, page 324.

The following reflections were made by ſome of the Canadians, when the Trial by Jury was firſt introduced into the Province.

They "obſerved, that it was a ſtrange thing, and a hard one, to force twelve perſons, who really think differently upon a doubtful

matter, that is referred to their determination, to ſay, upon their oaths, that they are all of the ſame opinion, and to continue to be ſhut up together, without food or light, till they do ſay ſo. This (they ſaid) was putting the deciſion of cauſes into the power of thoſe Jurymen who had the ſtrongeſt conſtitutions, and could go longeſt without food. And it was alſo forcing ſome of them to break their oath, and commit a kind of neceſſary perjury, by acceding to the opinion of their brother Jurymen, when they really entertained a contrary opinion." Theſe reflections were made upon the unanimity required amongſt Jurymen in delivering their verdict. And, I muſt confeſs, I think theſe reflections juſt, inſomuch that I am convinced that this unanimity could never have been required in the original inſtitution of Juries, but muſt have grown up from ſome accidental and collateral cauſe in the practice of this mode of trial: as, for example, from the unwillingneſs of Judges to take the trouble of adding a number of freſh Jurymen to the firſt twelve, when they could not agree in their verdict, and cauſing the evidence that had been before given, in the cauſe before the firſt twelve Jurymen, to be repeated over again by the witneſſes to the additional Jurymen till a verdict was obtained, in which twelve, at leaſt, out of the whole number of Jurymen, were really unanimous. For this was the way of proceeding in this matter in the days of King Henry the Third; that is about the year 1200, (or about four-ſcore years after the firſt inſtitution of Juries by King Henry the Second) as appears by the following paſſage, in the famous Lawyer Bracton, where he treats of the iſſue of *Non diſſaiſivit*, in a writ of *Novel diſſeiſin*, which appears to have been, at that time, a very common action."

The Paſſage in Engliſh.

"It often happens that Jurymen, when they come to deliver their verdict, appear to be of different opinions; ſo that they cannot bring in an unanimous verdict. In theſe caſes, the Court muſt order the (aſſize or) Jury to be (reinforced or) increaſed by the addition of as many new members as there are in the majority of the Jury who already agree in one opinion, and differ from the minority; or, at leaſt, by the addition of four or ſix new members. And theſe additional members of the Jury ſhall join with the former Jurymen, in conſidering and debating the matter in queſtion. Or they may, if the Court ſhall ſo direct, conſider and debate the matter by themſelves, without any ſuch conjunction with the original Jurymen, and give their anſwer concerning the matter in diſpute ſeparately by themſelves. And the verdict of thoſe members of the original Jury, with whom theſe new Jurymen ſhall agree in opinion, ſhall be allowed and hold good."

See Bracton de *Legibus & conſuetudinibus Angliæ*. Lib. iv. cap. 19. de *Aſſiſa novæ deiſſeiſinæ*, fol. 185, p. 2.

It is hoped that this matter may claim the attention of the more conſiderate and ſerious part of mankind, and that ſome method of obtaining verdicts be adopted, which ſhall relieve Jurymen from the evils complained of; and, at the ſame time, leave the perſons and property of Engliſhmen not leſs ſecure than they are by the preſent way of proceeding; and give additional reaſons for highly eſteeming the valuable Trial by Jury.

HINTS *reſpecting* WOMEN'S *and* CHILDREN'S CLOTHES *catching Fire.*

WHEN we reflect on the many dreadful misfortunes which have of late years happened, in conſequence of the clothes of women and children accidentally catching fire, it is a matter of ſome ſurpriſe, as well as great concern, to find ſo very little attention paid to the prevention of ſuch misfortunes in future.

The following hints are offered with a ſincere wiſh that they may meet with that ſerious conſideration which the ſubject requires, and be the means of engaging the attention of the public on this ſubject, and of adopting the following meaſures recommended, or ſome more effectual.

There are two principal objects which offer for our conſideration; the firſt is, *to prevent the clothes from catching fire:* and the other, *to check the progreſs of the flames.*

One of the moſt evident methods to *prevent the clothes from catching fire*, is to have wire-fenders placed before the fire-place, of a ſufficient height to hinder the coals from flying into the room; ſuch fenders are ſo placed in ſome parlours, but more it is believed for protecting the marble hearth and carpet, than for the ſafety of the females and children of the family. Wire ſcreens are ſometimes placed in rooms where birds are let looſe, *parallel to the fire-place;* ſuch as theſe, if more projecting ones ſhould be objected to, might be uſed in common ſitting-rooms. One or two ſtrong metal bars would be ſome protection, if cloſe wire-work ſhould not be liked; theſe, of courſe, ſhould come ſome way forward, otherwiſe they would not be of much uſe. Certainly the ſafeſt are fenders of cloſe wire-work, projecting into the room, ſufficiently open to let the heat through, but not any coals which might fly from the fire. Nurſeries in particular ſhould have this ſort.

The ſecond object which offers for conſideration is to *check the progreſs of the flames;* one of the moſt evident means of accompliſhing this end, is to wear dreſſes of materials which will not readily burn; but, as it is not probable that muſlins and linens will be laid aſide on account of the danger they expoſe the perſons wearing them to, perhaps ſome method may be adopted which may check the progreſs of the fire in thoſe ſubſtances. Experiments for this purpoſe have been made (on a ſmall ſcale) which very well anſwered the end, but on account of the preparations uſed, (which were pot-aſh and other alkaline ſubſtances), having the property of imbibing moiſture in a great degree, it renders this exact method, it is feared, impracticable. Would it not be of uſe, if the Society of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, were to offer a premium *for the beſt method of rendering linen and muſlin dreſſes, in a conſiderable degree, uninflammable, and not diſcolour, or injure in other reſpects, the ſubſtances, rendering them unfit for uſe?*

It has been recommended, that perſons whoſe clothes have caught fire, ſhould immediately *roll themſelves up in the carpet*, but this excellent method of extinguiſhing the flames is frequently quite impracticable, as it is cuſtomary to nail carpets down to the floor, a practice which ſhould never be ſuffered in rooms where there is any danger of accidents of this kind happening; nor ſhould heavy tables, or other furniture, be ſo placed on the carpet as to hinder it from being eaſily rolled up.

If a woollen cloth were conſtantly kept in nurſeries and ſitting-rooms,

eſpecially when there are fires, laid *looſe* upon the table, or other piece of furniture, this being always at hand, might be eaſily reſorted to in caſe of accident, and being wrapped tight round the flames, or ſtrongly preſſed againſt them, would, by excluding the air, no doubt, in many inſtances, ſoon extinguiſh the fire. A *green baize cloth*, which being very pliable, and likewiſe a neat cover to furniture, is recommended for this purpoſe; and, if ſuch were known in the family by the name of the STIFLING CLOTH, it probably would as readily be uſed when there was occaſion for it, as fire-engines and buckets now are. Care muſt be taken to procure *baize* of a cloſe texture. Where the convenience of a *baize cloth* cannot be eaſily procured, as in cottages, &c. a cloth cloak, or a blanket, will anſwer much the ſame purpoſe.

May we not attribute many of the melancholy events which have happened of late, to the modern practice of fixing fire-grates more forward than formerly, and to the prevailing cuſtom of wearing muſlin dreſſes?

REMARKS ON THE DUTY ON SALT.

THE conſideration of the vaſt revenue raiſed to government by taxation, from a population comparatively ſmall, ſhould ſeem to point out the channel into which our enquiries ought to be directed, in endeavouring to inveſtigate the cauſes of the high price of every article of food; for it is ſcarcely conceivable that in ſuch a long catalogue of taxes, none can be found that do not, in their operation, materially affect the price of ſome ſort of proviſion. On this line of enquiry the duty on ſalt will be found to be a tax on almoſt every neceſſary article of daily conſumption.

We have, I believe, ſufficient data, by which to aſcertain, with tolerable exactneſs, what portion of this duty falls on bread, the "ſtaff of life," as it is emphatically called, which makes no inconſiderable ſhare of the food of all, and the principal part of that of children and the poor.

The quantity of bread corn annually conſumed in this country is ten million quarters. The ſalt uſed in making this quantity into bread, in the proportion of 7lbs. to each quarter, will amount to 31,250 tons, which at the duty of 20l. per ton, is 625,000l —tax on bread.

If ſalt thus enhances the price of bread, where the palate can ſcarcely detect it, much more will it affect thoſe articles on which a larger quantity is uſed, ſuch as cheeſe, butter, bacon, fiſh, &c. for the whole amount of the groſs duty on ſalt, may be conſidered as the produce of a tax on theſe different kinds of food, of which tax the poorer claſs, as they cannot afford to purchaſe freſh meat, pay a very diſproportionate ſhare;— but the duty on ſalt operates alſo againſt the production of proviſions, and and interdicts the bounty of Heaven, by excluding four fifths of the people from the benefit of that exhauſtleſs ſupply which the ocean offers; for it is only by the uſe of ſalt that the different kinds of fiſh can be brought from every part of the coaſt to the interior of the country, and the fiſherman be enabled to enter into competition with the grazier and cattle jobber; and it is by the pernicious duty on this article (which to produce all the advantages Providence intended from it, ſhould be free as air) that ſo large a number are deprived of

this ſupply, and made, like Tantalus, to ſuffer want, ſurrounded by plenty.

It would be to no purpoſe to cite any of the clauſes of the Act which impoſes this duty in favour of the fiſherman; for it is a fact, that the conditions and regulations under which only an exemption from this duty can be obtained, are ſuch as, from conſiderations of locality and intereſt, are rarely complied with. To thoſe who are diſpoſed to trace this duty through all its miſchievous tendencies, I am perſuaded it will appear that no meaſure can be deviſed better calculated to relieve the miſeries of the poor than that of repealing it.

The uncertainty of our harveſts, as it is the effect of climate, admits of no remedy from human wiſdom —to the will of Heaven we bow— but the evil here ſtated is the work of man, and the power by which it was inflicted is competent to the removal of it. It is true there are obſtacles in the way of ſuch a meaſure; government will with difficulty be prevailed upon to riſk ſuch a portion of the revenue as that which the duty on ſalt produces, for any doubtful ſubſtitute of untried efficacy: but is not the national income for the national advantage? and if this end can be as effectually anſwered by relinquiſhing any part of it, as it would be by the expenditure of ſo much, why ſhould it not be complied with? The proſperity of a nation is not to be eſtimated by the magnitude of its revenue, and its naval and military eſtabliſhments: theſe may exiſt in the higheſt poſſible degree of ſplendour, while the majority of the people ſubſiſt on the ſcanty charity of public ſubſcriptions.

W. X.

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

SIR,

BEING convinced that the fulleſt perſuaſion of the truth of a moral propoſition is conſiſtent with a very inadequate knowledge of any art or method of reaſoning, I have been induced to offer to the public, through the medium of your Magazine, my ſentiments on the following important and intereſting queſtion: they are the ſubſtance of a ſpeech, delivered a few years ago, at a private Debating Society, but are equally applicable to exiſting circumſtances.

Queſtion—*Can any caſe, under whatever circumſtances, juſtify the violation of an acknowledged moral obligation?*

"By the terms employed in the queſtion, thoſe extreme and complex caſes, where the law is either not evidently perceived, or oppoſed by another law of ihe ſame kind, muſt be underſtood to be excluded from it; as, for inſtance, whether we are to tell the truth to a madman, when the death of a third perſon would be the inevitable conſequence, and ſuch like, which it is unneceſſary to mention.

"By moral obligation is meant, conformable to the general ſentiment of mankind, thoſe duties which infinite wiſdom has impoſed on moral beings, and on the obſervance of which, infinite goodneſs has made their higheſt happineſs ultimately to depend. By moral laws, which aſcertain, and by their ſanctions enforce thoſe duties, I underſtand the laws of God, whereever recognized, whether in natural or revealed religion.

"Having thus explained my idea of the real meaning of the queſtion, I ſhall only take up ſo much of your time as will enable me to conſider a ſevere caſe or two, and

notice the unhappy and fatal conſequences that flow from the practical adoption of the affirmative of the queſtion.

"Thoſe who are of opinion that the preſervation of life, when in the power of a lawleſs ruffian, would juſtify the violation of an acknowledged moral obligation, would do well to conſider whether there be a principle more conſiſtent with the moral fitneſs of things, on which life can be reſigned, than that of obedience to the law of him who gave it. Whether there are any circumſtances that can confer on the laſt ſcene of life more real dignity, or afford to thoſe intereſted in its continuance, more true ground of conſolation. But, as this plea is founded on a regard for human life, it deſerves to be treated with reſpect, and I freely enter into the indignation of him who uſes it; I go along with him, in thoſe painful feelings, which in his breaſt cannot fail to be excited, by contemplating the prodigal waſte of our ſpecies, which, ſo lately, exhibited Europe a theatre of brutal, bloody contention, and which is moſt palpably the conſequence of trampling upon thoſe ſacred obligations of which I am now the humble advocate.

"Upon due reflection, I ſhould hope that my opponent, in the caſe under conſideration, will not claim juſtification: I ſhould be glad to find ſome point between the extremes of our opinions, at which we might meet. Let us allow the ſevere circumſtances in which our probationiſt is placed, and the conſideration of the weakneſs of human nature, to furniſh ſomething like an apology for the infraction of the law; but let us not attempt to juſtify it, for if we could do it, we ſhould condemn him who, in the like ſituation, ſhould obey the law, give a vicious turn to moral duty, the general tendency of which would be to diſtract and confound the moral world.

"I am the more ſolicitous that the moral obligation may be eſtabliſhed in this caſe, becauſe, if the exemption be authorized here, what, let me aſk, will be its force in the caſe that lies next to this? And, again, what will be its authority in the caſe next beyond that? and ſo on, till, in the ſeries, we arrive at the greateſt degree of moral turpitude. You have allowed me to perjure myſelf to ſave my life: what is life without enjoyment? And is not property the means of enjoyment? Am I not then permitted to perjure myſelf to ſave my property? Where is the line of demarcation to be drawn? What becomes of the diſtinction of virtue and vice? You who, in ſuch caſes, teach me to deſpiſe the laws of God, tell me from what motive I am to reſpect them in any caſe, when, in the purſuit of property and enjoyment, I ſee my intereſt in their ſecret violation?

"The principle of ſelf-preſervation, uſually urged in ſuch caſes, as the firſt law of nature, will be of no avail, unleſs it can be ſhewn that the negative of the queſtion is inconſiſtent with this law. As a law of nature, it applies to different beings, according to their reſpective natures or eſſences; that of man is admitted to be moral. How then can a man be ſaid to ſave himſelf, who ſacrifices his morality? The whole *ſelf* is certainly not ſaved; his ſuperior and beſt part, that which is the diſtinguiſhing characteriſtic of his ſpecies, is, with reſpect to him, loſt; a *brute* then is only ſaved, not the man.

"If it ſhould be thought that reaſon alone conſtitutes his diſtinguiſhing attribute, I would aſk whether a brute would not be more a brute by the poſſeſſion of reaſon, in as much, as the ſphere of his miſchievous brutality would be thereby enlarged? Whether a

man, without any moral principle of action, under the uncontrouled guidance of this faculty, in purſuit of the gratification of his inſtincts and appetites, would not be the moſt noxious brute of the foreſt? And whether, in fact, it be not to ſuch brutes that the unhappy and the oppreſſed, in every walk of life, owe the largeſt portion of their ſufferings?

"The conviction of the indiſpenſability of the moral duty I wiſh to enforce, (the only moral duty I have any conception of) is equally confirmed by the conſiderations of what would be its happy influence on mankind, were a ſimilar conviction of its truth and importance to be univerſally felt; and from a view of the evils that have reſulted to ſociety from thoſe licentious inſtitutions, that impiouſly ſubject the law of God to that of man, and by which a divine revelation from heaven is given to the rulers of the earth, to be converted into an engine of oppreſſion, while the unhallowed prieſts and miniſters of ſuch inſtitutions, as if oppreſſion were juſtice, preach to the people the ſublime doctrine of implicit obedience to their oppreſſors.

"But as the authority of the laws I contend for, which all profeſs to revere, could not be directly and avowedly oppoſed by thoſe paſſions againſt which all exclaim, the principle of EXPEDIENCY has been adopted, which principle (if principle it can in any proper ſenſe be called) provides for all ends by every kind of means—thus, the ſufficiency of man's wiſdom miſtaking his true happineſs, has preſumptuouſly oppoſed that wiſdom which is infinite—in the ſuppoſed defect of omniſcience, men ſubmit to be governed by men, and become the ſlaves of ſlaves: thus it is that the worſt paſſions, under the impoſing name of expediency, violate every principle of juſtice, betray the moſt ſacred of truſts, and, ſometimes in attempting to eſtabliſh deſpotic power excite the reſentment of a people, involve nations in the miſeries of anarchy, and all the horrors of civil war.

"It is expediency that perverts the ſimple and plain truths of revelation to ſanction ſyſtems of oppreſſion and tyranny!

"It is expediency that gives more importance to the belief of what is confeſſedly unintelligible, than to the practice of thoſe eſſential duties which cannot be miſtaken.

"It is expediency, or, if you pleaſe, neceſſity (which is a more emphatic name of the ſame principle) which ſerves as the monſtrous medium by which the contradictory ideas of "Save men's lives," and "Deſtroy men's lives," are diſcovered to agree and perfectly harmonize.

"It is expediency that claſſes a Wilberforce with a Robeſpierre, and covers them both with blood! —Chriſtians! ſtrike at this idol, the invention of men's brains, more the enemy of your cauſe than were all the images of all ages that have been "the fabrication of men's hands." Strike, or believe that in converting the heathen world, the goſpel dove periſhed in the foul, unnatural embrace of the Imperial Eagle.

"Philoſophers! philanthropiſts! who oppreſs and torture intellect, in projecting ſyſtems of ſocial happineſs, ceaſe from your labours, —ſimplify the taſk you impoſe on yourſelves—reſign us to the laws of him who made us—concentrate your powers; let your energies take a new direction; eſtabliſh on the mind of man this important truth—that diſobedience to thoſe laws, on whatever motive, in whatever ſituation, private or public, ſo far from being juſtifiable, is the only ſource of all the evil that diſfigures and darkens the moral world, the only cauſe of all the injuſtice that degrades, oppreſſes, and devours the human race!" W.

THE FAITHFUL SPANIEL.

[An Anecdote.]

A MERCHANT of Corinth was charged, by the magiſtrates of that city, with a commiſſion to an iſland ſituated near Athens. This merchant had a large water ſpaniel, which uſually accompanied him in his travels, but was prevented from following him, in the preſent inſtance, by being accidentally ſhut up in a room.

The merchant had not been long embarked, before his faithful companion found the ſecret of eſcaping through the window; and he immediately ran to the door, to ſee if his maſter was there; but, alas! he was not to be found. By this time the veſſel, driven by a fair wind, was ſcarcely perceptible from the ſhore. What an embarraſſment was this for the poor dog? What could he do? What would become of him? After a moment's heſitation, however, he plunged into the ſea, and ſwam towards the ſhip with all his might. He had not got far before a terrible ſtorm aroſe: the lightning flaſhed, the wind blew, the thunder rolled, torrents of rain fell from the heavens, and the waves ran mountains high. All this did not prevent the affectionate creature from continuing his efforts, though he had not gained in the leaſt upon the ſhip, which had been driven with greater rapidity from the violence of the tempeſt.

However, the weather ſoon became as ſerene as it had been before tempeſtuous: the ſun ſhone with all its ſplendour, and the mildneſs of the air invited the Corinthian to come upon deck. While he was contemplating the magnificent ſpectacle of the glaſſy ocean, and the contraſt of a calm ſucceeding a ſtorm, he was ſurpriſed by the barking of a dog, which he ſoon diſcovered to be his own favourite ſpaniel: he immediately ran to the pilot, and begged him to ſlacken the courſe of the veſſel; ſo that, by the help of a rope, they might be able to ſave the poor animal, which was ſo ſpent that it could ſcarcely keep itſelf above water. His entreaties were in vain. He promiſed a great recompence if his requeſt could be complied with, but even that was rejected. The ſurly mariner anſwered, that he ſhould not ſtop the courſe of his veſſel, for the ſake of a dog. Being anxious to arrive at their intended port, the paſſengers were nearly all of the ſame mind; ſo that the poor animal was ſtill obliged to follow the veſſel as well as he was able; but the wind blowing freſh, by the time they arrived at their deſtination he was entirely out of ſight. The Greek looked for him in vain for ſome time, but he at laſt eſpied him, toſſing up and down, at the mercy of the waves; for he was ſo exhauſted that he had no longer power to direct his courſe. He had juſt ſtrength to reach the ſhore, which he had no ſooner accompliſhed than he fell down on the ſand, and breathed his laſt, with his head upon his maſter's feet.

"Unfeeling wretch!" exclaimed the indignant Corinthian, "what would it have coſt thee to have been a little obliging? By ſaving the life of this animal, more ſenſible than thyſelf, thou wouldſt have ſaved me the moſt poignant regret; and, for a little trouble, thou wouldſt have gained this purſe of gold, which would have enriched thee and thy family for the remainder of your lives."

OBSERVATIONS *on the Means of comparing the different Degrees of* INDUSTRY *and* SENSIBILITY, *which are viſible in* BIRDS.

[By M. LACEPEDE, Member of the Conſervative Senate, and of the National Inſtitute of France.]

A VERY high degree of intereſt and attention is naturally excited by the contemplation of the different kinds of birds. It is a ſubject that preſents the natural hiſtorian with a claſs remarkable in point of form, habits, and qualities; it furniſhes the painter with models of grace and lightneſs, and with a colouring at once brilliant and harmonious; and it exhibits to the poet the moſt captivating imagery, animated compariſons, and ingenious fables to adorn his compoſitions. To the ſame claſs alſo, ſouls endowed with ſenſibility are indebted for the happieſt moments of the fineſt days, the ſweeteſt charms of the moſt delightful ſeaſon, and the innocent amuſements of the happieſt period of human life.

Whatever may lead to a more accurate knowledge of the feathered tribe, and enable us to form a more correct judgment with regard to the faculties peculiar to this claſs, ought therefore to be received with a due degree of complaiſance and reſpect. In the conſideration of this ſubject, we muſt pay proper attention to thoſe qualities of birds, which are moſt apt to ſtrike the obſerver; to thoſe that diſcover points of ſimilarity to the intelligence of animals, and which may determine more exactly the degree of inſtinct that has fallen to their ſhare: and the moſt obvious of theſe are their induſtry and ſenſibility.

In order to determine the force of ſenſibility, and the extent of induſtry in ſuch ſpecies, and afterwards to combine from the ſingularities of each, a general picture of theſe faculties conſidered relatively to the entire claſs of birds, it will not be ſufficient to examine with ſcrupulous attention the facts which depend on theſe two qualities, or to ſtudy them with ſagacious diligence, and calculate them with accuracy and preciſion, we muſt, moreover, be enabled to compare, with minute exactneſs, the reſults and obſervations made upon one ſpecies, with thoſe of which every other ſpecies had been the object. With this view, I have judged it expedient to lay before naturaliſts and travellers, a comparative ſcale of the induſtry of the different ſpecies of birds, and likewiſe a comparative ſcale of their different degrees of ſenſibility.

With reſpect to the firſt of theſe, it may be obſerved, that we have no other means of aſcertaining the induſtry of animated beings, beſides the reſults which are derived from that faculty; that is, the greater or leſs degree of perfection that is viſible in their works. In this reſpect, the ſame circumſtance may be obſerved with regard to birds, as to almoſt every deſcription of living creatures: their moſt remarkable labours have no further object than the conſtruction, the arrangement, and the comfort of their aſylum. They employ their greateſt exertions in order to prepare and ſecure their habitations, for that period of pleaſure and of pain, of enjoyment and uneaſineſs, in which they are to give birth to a new being, to watch over it with attention, to nouriſh and defend it

from the inclemency of the ſeaſons. It is on this occaſion that they diſplay all their reſources, exert their utmoſt induſtry, and put forth all their ſkill and invention. It is therefore in the conſtruction of their neſts, that we muſt ſearch for the veſtiges of their induſtry. It is in the principal differences which are manifeſted in thoſe habitations, that we ſhall find the greater or leſs degree of perfection which is exhibited in the produce of their art; and as theſe differences are very eaſy to be diſtinguiſhed, even under ſome points of general uniformity, we have thought proper to introduce them, in order to draw up the comparative ſcale which we venture to recommend to the attention of the friends of Natural Hiſtory.

This ſcale is divided into eight degrees, which are nearly of equal magnitude. In the loweſt point of the ſcale, we place the induſtry of thoſe birds which conſtruct no neſt for themſelves, and invade the aſylum of other birds, ſuch as the cuckoo and the owl; or thoſe that are content with the ſmall ſhelter they may find on the ſhores of the ocean, like the halcyon; or in the ſand, like the oſtrich; in the open fields, like the partridge; or on the ſummit of a craggy rock, like the eagle and the vulture.

The ſecond degree will point out thoſe birds that conſtruct their neſts with clumſy materials, collected without choice, and brought together without care, like the rude habitation which is raiſed on the ſea-ſhore by the large and heavy bird which is known by the name of the *albatros*.

By the third degree we ſhall deſignate the neſts that are made from materials which are tolerably well ſelected, prepared with attention, and are often carried from a great diſtance; habitations, for inſtance, which are formed with moſs, covered with clay, and lined with tender herbs and leaves; ſuch as the neſts of blackbirds, and other ſmaller birds.

When the materials are interwoven with a certain degree of ſkill, are applied with art, and connected together by a combination of contrivances, as we may ſee in a particular manner in the neſt of the great bird which is found on the ſhores of South America, and which is known by the name of the *kamichi*; this portion of induſtry comes under the fourth degree on our comparative ſcale.

To the fifth degree it will be proper to aſſign thoſe, whoſe anxiety of reſearch, and attentive diſcernment, induce them to give their neſts the moſt ſuitable poſition, to ſecure them from the dangers that might menace their tender and defenceleſs young; and it is in this manner that the *colibris* place their ſlender habitation at the extremity of a tapering bough, and conceal it with ſcrupulous concern, by means of the leaves that encircle the ſpreading ſhoots of the brittle branch.

The ſixth degree belongs to the birds that take the greateſt precaution to ſecure the ſafety of their little families, and whoſe habitations, like thoſe of ſeveral ſpecies of ſwallows and tomtits, preſent narrow entrances or winding approaches, a ſort of projection or pent-houſe, and ſeveral diſtinct and ſeparate cavities.

To the ſeventh degree muſt be referred the birds, whoſe females build their cells cloſe to one another; and by a great exertion of induſtry, carry on their operations in concert, and complete their habitations, which are contiguous, and provided with inlets and apertures on a great part of their circumference.

The eighth degree muſt be reſerved for the *anis* and the *caciques*,

whoſe females, frequently to the number of fifty, emulate the induſtry of the beavers, and confine their neſts, though diſtinct and ſeparate, under a large and general cover, which embraces and protects all their little manſions, and which cannot poſſibly be effected unleſs by a very conſtant and very uncommon combination of concord, ſkill, and reſources. This latter circumſtance forms the moſt elevated point of the induſtry of the feathered tribe; and now we ſhall deſcend from the conſideration of our firſt comparative ſcale, in order to aſcend to a ſcale of a ſimilar conſtruction.

Let us now reckon up the diſtinguiſhing marks of ſenſibility in the ſame birds, and preſent a meaſure of this attribute, divided into eight degrees nearly equal, and on the ſame plan as the former ſcale that repreſented their induſtry.

The ſenſibility of all animals muſt be eſtimated from its effects; and among all the acts which muſt be referred to their ſenſibility, the moſt important and remarkable conſiſt in the nature and the duration of their affection for their mates.

Let us therefore obſerve the habits of the males with regard to the female birds; and theſe habits will furniſh us with the ſcale of ſenſibility, as the labours of the females have provided the comparative ſcale of induſtry.

Our firſt queſtion muſt now be, what birds muſt we place on the firſt degree, and on the loweſt point of our ſcale? The anſwer is, that ſpecies the males of which abandon their mates before they begin to prepare the aſylum in which they depoſit their eggs. What ſpecies comes more peculiarly under the ſecond degree? that, the males of which continue with their females during the greater part of the time which is employed in the conſtruction of their neſts. It is unneceſſary to furniſh inſtances of theſe two feeble degrees of ſenſibility. To the third degree we ſhall refer the *caciques*, which we have already mentioned; the induſtry of which birds has often excited the admiration of the inhabitants of South America. They are more conſtantly with their females, nor do they forſake them when they are occupied in building their neſts, in the conſtruction of which they lend their aſſiſtance, and finiſh them with that degree of patience and induſtry which excites the wonder of the Natural Hiſtorian.

The fourth degree exhibits to us that ſpecies, the males of which guard and protect their mates during the long fatigues of incubation. They carry to them a part of that nouriſhment which is ſo neceſſary to their ſubſiſtence, and endeavour to charm by their ſongs the tediouſneſs of an incubation, which is prolonged for ſeveral days. Among theſe we muſt rank ſome woodcocks of South America; ſome yellowhammers which are not to be found in our quarter of the globe; and the nightingale, whoſe tender and affecting melodies the echoes of the peaceful woods ſo frequently repeat, in the ſtillneſs of the calm night, and in the delightful ſeaſon of his loves. A more affectionate concern, which induces the male to hatch in concert with the female the eggs which ſhe has laid, is indicated by the fifth degree on our comparative ſcale. We delight to behold this remarkable attachment in the numerous and beautiful tribes of parrots, and in the family of fly-birds, that keep within the torrid zone, waving with a brilliant luſtre, and glittering with gold, with diamonds, and rubies, and which have received from nature an equal portion of ſenſibility and beauty. We are not leſs delighted in viewing the ſame affec

tion in the duſky-coloured birds of the northern ocean, that are, with little variation, expoſed amidſt rocks covered with ſnow, and amidſt enormous maſſes of ice.

We reſerve the ſixth degree for that claſs, the males of which, like thoſe of the ſtorks and the *drontes*, (if the latter are ſtill in exiſtence), participate the aſſiduity and tender concern of the female for their unfledged young.

In the ſeventh degree, we behold the pelicans, and ſome wild pigeons, the males of which, as well as the females, prepare in their mouths the neceſſary nouriſhment for their tender offspring.

Finally, the eighth degree is juſtly appropriated to thoſe male birds, whoſe attachment is ſtronger and more durable, and which induces them to continue with their mates, to aſſiſt them and defend them, for a long period after their young are on the wing. On this higheſt degree of the ſcale we muſt place ſome ſtarlings, or ſea-ſwallows, and a few of the ſpecies of pheaſants. In this point we likewiſe meet with the partridges, which we have mentioned in another part of our ſcale, with an inferior degree of induſtry; and, if after we have compared the ſenſibility and induſtry of different birds, we make a freſh compariſon of their inſtinct or intelligence, how many new inſtances of a different deſcription, which are worthy the attention of the philoſopher, ſhall we not perceive, in the diſtribution of theſe three attributes, and in the portion of thoſe faculties which nature has wiſely allotted to every ſpecies of birds? As for the reſt, it is eaſy to imagine, that in order to eſtabliſh a vigorous compariſon between the different ſpecies, whoſe induſtry or ſenſibility ſhall be deſcribed, with reference to ſcales, ſuch as we have adopted, it will be neceſſary to point out in the concluſions drawn from theſe qualities, how much is to be aſcribed to the influence of climate on the bird, to the elevation of the temperature of the air during the time of incubation, to the quality of the nouriſhment beſt adapted to each claſs, to the ſolitude of its retreat, to the number of its enemies, to the ſtrength of the arms it has received for attack or defence, to the largeneſs of its wings, to the ſwiftneſs of its flight, the force of its beak, the dimenſions of its feet, the form of thoſe inſtruments with which nature has furniſhed it, in order to collect, prepare, unite, and arrange the materials of its neſt. It is, therefore, the greater or leſs perfection diſcoverable in the conſtruction of their neſts, that marks the different degrees of induſtry in birds; and it is their conſtancy, and the extent of their attention to their mates, that brings to light the various degrees of their ſenſibility. By adopting theſe two comparative ſcales, and employing them with diſcernment, it may be poſſible to diſcover relations of important conſequence to the Naturaliſt, and ſome which may not be altogether uſeleſs to the moſt profound metaphyſician.

As theſe truths muſt neceſſarily be numerous, ſuſceptible of many applications, and fertile in analogous reſults, they may provide means to the natural philoſopher of arriving at more ſublime and general principles; he may advance from approximation to approximation, and from ſummit to ſummit, in a manner, till he arrives at the moſt unbounded proſpects. He will be enabled, with a degree of leſs imperfection, to come to a nearer knowledge and inſight of that myſterious and all-powerful nature, which is the model of all induſtry, the origin of all ſenſibility, and the primary fountain of talents, virtue, and happineſs.

An ACCOUNT *of an* IMPROVED SYSTEM *of teaching* CHILDREN *to ſpell and read.*

[From LANCASTER's Improvements in Education.]

THE predominant feature in the youthful diſpoſition, is an almoſt irreſiſtible propenſity to action; this, if properly controlled by ſuitable employment, will become a valuable auxiliary to the maſter, but, if neglected, will be apt to degenerate into rebellion. Active youths, when treated as cyphers, will generally ſhew their conſequence by exerciſing themſelves in miſchief; this is often the cauſe of that unpleaſant riotous diſpoſition evinced at our public ſchools, where the pupils brave every thing but the cenſures of their friends, or the diſgrace of expulſion.

Aware of theſe things, I have endeavoured to render the degree of knowledge I poſſeſs ſubſervient to the intereſt of the inſtitution, by reducing theory into practice. My ſchool is attended by three hundred ſcholars. The *whole* ſyſtem of tuition is almoſt entirely conducted by boys; the writing books are ruled with exactneſs, and all the writers ſupplied with good pens by the ſame means. In the firſt inſtance, the ſchool is divided into claſſes, to each of theſe a lad is appointed as monitor: he is reſponſible for the morals, improvement, good order, and cleanlineſs of the whole claſs. It is his duty to make a daily, weekly, and monthly report of progreſs, ſpecifying the number of leſſons performed, boys preſent, abſent, &c. &c.—As we naturally expect the boys who teach others to read, to leave ſchool when their education is complete, and do not with that they ſhould neglect their own improvement in other ſtudies, they are inſtructed to train other lads as aſſiſtants, who, in future, may ſupply their place; and, in the mean time, leave them to improve in other branches of learning. To be a monitor is coveted by the whole ſchool, it being an office at once honourable and productive of emolument: "Solid pudding, as well as empty praiſe."

We have, beſide, other lucrative offices of truſt. A monitor delivers out the leather commendatory tickets; a ſecond, the tickets of the order of merit; another has a general charge as to cleanlineſs, &c. and a fourth has the charge of near three hundred ſlates. Thus, every duty has its reſpective officer, and the fidelity and aſſiduity diſplayed in its diſcharge by theſe younglings, is ſurpriſing. This ſyſtem of tuition is mutually for the advantage of the lads who teach, and thoſe who are taught; by it the path of learning is ſtrewed with flowers; for the monitors have rewards attached to the proper diſcharge of their reſpective duties. Thus, if a lad in one claſs is qualified, by improvement, for removal to a higher, he receives an appropriate reward, and his monitor alſo a ſimilar one. The ſame regulation takes place in arithmetic, on going into a new rule. The advantage, derived from the daily reports of progreſs made by each claſs being regularly booked, is great; it obliges the monitors to go ſtraight forward, and not wander from one leſſon to another; it affords, by inſpection, a true account of the leſſons, &c. performed by every boy; and alſo a retroſpective view of the general progreſs of the whole ſchool.—But it is now time to give ſome account of our improved methods of tuition: they may, poſſibly, prove a public benefit. The method of ſpelling ſeems to be the moſt excellent, it being entirely an

addition to the regular courſe of ſtudies, without interfering with, or deranging them in the leaſt. It commands attention, gratifies the active diſpoſition of youth, and is an excellent introduction and auxiliary to writing. It ſuperſedes, in a great meaſure, the uſe of books in tuition, while (to ſpeak moderately) it doubles the actual improvement of the children. It is as ſimple an operation as can well be conceived.—Thus, ſupply twenty boys with ſlates and pencils, and pronounce any word for them to write, ſuppoſe it is the word "abſo-lu-ti-on;" they are obliged to liſten with attention, to catch the ſound of every letter as it falls from their teacher's lips; again, they have to retrace the idea of every letter, and the pronunciation of the word, as they write it on the ſlates. If we examine ourſelves, when we write letters, we ſhall find that writing is ſo much aſſociated and connected with orthography, that we cannot write a word without ſpelling as we write, and involuntarily correcting any inaccuracy that may occur.

Now theſe twenty boys, if they were at a common ſchool, would each have a book, and, one at a time, would read or ſpell to their teacher, while the other nineteen were looking at their books, or about them, as they pleaſed; or, if their eyes are rivetted on their books, by terror and coercion, can we be ſure that the attention of their minds is engaged as appearance ſeems to ſpeak it is. On the contrary, when they have ſlates, the twentieth boy may read to the teacher, while the other nineteen are ſpelling words on the ſlate, inſtead of ſitting idle. The claſs, by this means, will ſpell, write, and read, at the ſame inſtant of time. In addition to this, the ſame trouble which teaches twenty, will ſuffice to teach ſixty or a hundred, by employing ſome of the ſenior boys to inſpect the ſlates of the others, they not omitting to ſpell the word themſelves, and on a ſignal being given by them to the principal teacher, that the word is finiſhed by all the boys they overlook, he is informed when to dictate another to the claſs. This experiment has been repeatedly practiſed by 112 and 128 boys at once; and judicious perſons, good judges on the ſubject of education, who were preſent, were convinced that the ſame trouble was ſufficient to teach 200 boys, or more, on the ſame plan.

DESCRIPTION OF THE CITY OF PARIS.

[From KARAMSIN's Travels.]

PARIS appears to the beſt advantage when you approach it from Verſailles; large buildings, with ſteeples and cupolas, are obſerved before you; on the right flows the Seine, bordered with picturesque gardens and ſummerhouſes; on the left riſes, in the back ground of an extenſive green plain, the Mont-Martre, covered with windmills, reſembling an army of winged giants. The road is broad, level, as ſmooth as a table, and in the evening lighted by lamps. The Barrière is a houſe of a middle ſize, but ſtriking on account of its architecture. Acroſs a large, fine meadow, the road leads to the Champs Eliſées, which have not in vain this charming name. They conſiſt of a grove, which ſeems to have been planted by the Orcades themſelves; here and there interrupted by little green ſpots, on which ſtand ſmall neat houſes, which are either coffee-houſes or ſome kind of ſhops. Here the people walk on Sundays —muſic reſounds every where, and

the young people are dancing.—Can any one deny that Paris is the firſt city of the world, the centre of all magnificence and grandeur, when he aſcends the great terrace, and beholds every where, behind and before, to the right and to the left, the largeſt and handſomeſt buildings, palaces, and temples——the fine banks of the Seine——the bridges of granite, acroſs which throng thouſands of people and of carriages? But here you muſt remain, if you would not alter your opinion. On proceeding further, you meet with narrow ſtreets, and the moſt diſagreeable mixture of wealth and beggary. Cloſe to the brilliant ſhop of a jeweller, lies a heap of rotten apples and herrings; dirt abounds every where; and now and then, even blood ſtreams in rivulets from the butchers' ſhops.—One muſt ſtop noſe and eyes here! The picture of the moſt elegant city is loſt, and it ſeems as if all the dirt and filth of the world had been brought to Paris, by ſubterraneous canals; but go one ſtep further, and you breathe the fragrant odours of Arabia, for you are in the vicinity of one of thoſe ſhops, ſo numerous in Paris, where they ſell perfumes and pomatum. In ſhort, at every ſtep is a new atmoſphere and new objects of luxury, or of the moſt diſagreeable uncleanlineſs; ſo that Paris may juſtly be called the fineſt and foulеſt, the moſt fragrant and moſt ſtinking city on the globe. The ſtreets are all, without exception, narrow and dark. The celebrated ſtreet, Saint-Honoré, is the longeſt, moſt noiſy and dirty. Woe to the poor pedeſtrian, particularly when it rains! He muſt either wade through the dirt, in the middle of the ſtreet, or the water pours down on his head from the gutters on the tops of the houſes, and leaves him not a dry thread. A coach is abſolutely neceſſary, at leaſt for a ſtranger, for the French underſtand perfectly how to walk through the dirt, without beſpattering themſelves; they leap moſt admirably from one ſtone to another, and take ſhelter in a ſhop from a carriage. The celebrated Tournefort, who had travelled almoſt all over the world, on his return, was cruſhed to death, by a hackney coach; becauſe, on his travels, he had forgotten the art of ſkipping in the ſtreets, like a goat: an art abſolutely neceſſary to an inhabitant of Paris!

TIMIDITY AND FEMALE COURAGE COMPARED.

[From HAMILTON's Letters.]

TIMIDITY, when conſidered merely as an enemy to vigorous exertion, will be found an obſtacle to every ſpecies of excellence; as by fettering the mind it is particularly friendly to prejudice, and inimical to truth. The ſelf-poſſeſſion which ſeems the inheritance of great minds, is, in reality, but the triumph of reaſon over the paſſions of ſurpriſe and fear; which on no emergency can be promptly conquered by minds accuſtomed to the early dominion of terror. It ſurely then is our buſineſs to guard as much as poſſible againſt the early introduction of a paſſion which is in its exceſs equally injurious to happineſs and virtue. Females, indeed, are ſeldom placed in thoſe ſituations where the exertion of active courage is required. Whatever is unneceſſary is abſurd; the affectation of it is diſguſting. But of that paſſive courage which takes the name of fortitude, where is the woman, who, in ſome period of life, is not called on for its exertion? By the delicacy of her frame expoſed to inevitable ſuffering from

bodily pain, ought not her mind to be ſtrengthened to ſupport it with firmneſs? Unhappy the friend, doubly unhappy the attendants, who are doomed to liſten to the querulous murmurs of amiable weakneſs under the preſſure of bodily infirmity? Here, I believe, it would be readily excuſed, even by the moſt ſtrenuous advocate for the charms of feminine imbecility. But having once deprived the mind of ſtrength and energy, we muſt take all the conſequences: of theſe the incapacity of ſupporting pain with any degree of firmneſs is, perhaps, not the worſt. The ſelfiſhneſs, almoſt always, connected with extreme timidity of temper, is a conſequence we ſhould ſtill more ſtrongly deprecate. Active benevolence requires a degree of reſolution, a dereliction of ſelf, to which the timid can never attain. Let us compare the two by examples from real life. Is it an uncommon thing to ſee a lady who is the ſlave of fooliſh fears with regard to her own perſonal ſafety, ſhew very little concern for the ſafety of others? I have ſeen one who, if a cow but looked at her in her walks, would ſcream with terror, and run from it as ſhe would from a Bengal tyger: yet with great ſang froid permit her child to face the formidable animal, and turn it from the path! it is the nature of cowardice and puſillanimity to direct the mind excluſively to the attention of ſelf. On a mind thus occupied, the ſufferings of others can make no impreſſion; nor can the ſocial or ſympathetic affections in ſuch circumſtances exert their influence over the heart. How miſtaken is it, then, to confound the idea of gentleneſs, of which the feelings of benevolence and complacency are the conſtituents, with that cowardice which is the conſequence of an unmixed regard to ſelf! Permit me to illuſtrate the union of gentleneſs and fortitude by an apt example with which my memory now furniſhes me. Mrs. B. a lady whoſe gentleneſs aroſe from the pure ſource of Chriſtian meekneſs and unbounded philanthropy, after having ſuffered with unrepining patience the painful progreſs of a cancer, was adviſed to ſubmit to an operation, from which a faint hope of cure was entertained by her medical friends. It happened that one of her ſervants (I believe her kitchen maid) had about the ſame time contracted a white ſwelling in her knee, for which amputation was pronounced the only remedy. During the progreſs of her diſorder, Mrs. B. took infinite pains to ſtrengthen the weaker mind of her fellow-ſufferer, and to bring her to that calm reſignation to the Divine will, of which ſhe herſelf was ſo bright an example. The amiable miſtreſs, who was mother of a large family, ſpent the morning in giving ſuch admonitions to her children, and ſuch inſtructions concerning them, as were ſuggeſted by a ſound underſtanding, a pious mind, and a benevolent heart. But not even the affecting idea of a laſt interview (for ſo ſhe conſidered it) with her beloved children, could ſo far conquer her feelings as to render her forgetful of the poor ſufferer above ſtairs, whoſe feeble mind was in agonies of apprehenſion at the near proſpect of the dreaded event. She ſent to her ſeveral meſſages of conſolation before the arrival of the ſurgeons, and after ſhe had with heroic fortitude endured the cruel torture of an unſucceſsful operation, the firſt and almoſt the only words ſhe uttered, were to deſire an attendant to inform Peggy, that the pain was not nearly ſo great as ſhe expected! Let us compare the magnanimity of this conduct with the ſelfiſh concern of a daſtardly and timid ſpirit, and declare to which of the two we would give the preference.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, November 1803.

D.	H.	Baro.	T.out	T. in	H.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c. Rain 2,63
1	8	30,34	45	51	48	3	E 2	: more cloudy
	2	30,33	46	51	47	4	ENE 3	
2	8	30,35	42,5	49	47	3	E 2	
	2	30,35	44	49	46	2	ENE 2	
3	8	30,38	30,5	47	48	3	NE 1	little foggy
	2	30,38	42,5	48	44	3	ENE 1	
4	8	30,23	34	46	49	1	ENE 1	little foggy
	2	30,11	42	46	46	3	ENE 1	. thick upward at night
5	8	29,79	38,5	46	48	h	ESE 1	
	2	29,63	39,5	45,5	48	h	ESE 1	. fine night
6	8	29,32	40	45,5	58	f	ESE 0	. drizzling
	2	29,29	47,5	47,5	63	5	ESE 0	hazy. rain. fair and brisk westerly wind
7	8	29,60	47	49	64	3	S 1	hazy: cloudy
	2	29,58	53,5	51	56	5	SSE 1	. chiefly cloudy. little rain at night
8	8	29,46	51,5	52,5	65	h	SSE 1	. little rain and wind ssw. fine
	2	29,50	57	55	58	3	S 1	. cloudy eve. much rain
9	8	29,23	51	55	66	f	SE 1	chiefly rainy
	2	29,10	52	56	65	f	SE 1	gentle rain. fair. fine eve
10	8	28,82	51	55	66	4	SSW 2	. rain. fine
	2	28,85	53	56	56	3	SSW 3	. less wind. rainy night
11	8	28,87	46,5	52,5	63	f	SSW 1	chiefly rainy
	2	28,81	48,5	53	61	5	S 2	hazy. fine eve: rain
12	8	28,95	44,5	51,5	60	h	SW 1	little rain. fine
	2	29,06	49	52	57	3	WSW 2	
13	8	29,34	45	51	59	3	WSW 1	hazy. little rain. fine
	2	29,43	50	53	57	3	W 1	. meteor seen at night. more cloudy
14	8	29,70	43	52,5	58	4	W 1	. little rain. fine
N	2	29,73	46,5	51,5	56	3	WSW 2	. cloudy night
15	8	29,83	35,5	48	69	f	ESE 1	. little cloudy
	2	29,82	48,5	49,5	61	4	S 1	. more cloudy eve. chiefly rainy
16	8	29,49	46	50,5	70	f	S 1	chiefly gentle rain
	2	29,32	52	52	67	5	S 2	chiefly rainy or drizzly
17	8	29,39	40	51	63	f	W 1	drizzly. fine
	2	29,47	44,5	51,5	58	2	W 1	hazy. clear night
18	8	29,44	30,5	49,5	61	2	W 1	foggy. fine
	2	29,54	42,5	49,5	60	3	WSW 1	. thick upward at eve
19	8	29,38	40	46	59	f	NW 1	drizzly. little rain: fine
	2	29,47	44,5	48,5	62	3	N 2	. cloudy. fine night
20	8	29,65	39,5	47,5	60	f	N 1	cloudy. little rain
	2	29,58	45	48	62	4	ENE 1	. gentle rain at night
21	8	29,22	44	50	76	f	ENE 0	drizzly. rain at night
	2	29,24	48	52	72	f	W 1	gentle rain. fine eve: rain
22	8	29,19	48,5	52	67	5	S 2	rain at times
	2	29,19	48	53	63	5	SW 2	little rain. thunder storm at eve. windy and fine
23	8	29,33	43,5	52	62	1	WSW 2	
	2	29,51	49	52	59	2	W 2	
24	8	29,79	37	48,5	59	f	W 1	not cloudy
	2	29,83	42	48	57	3	W 1	foggy. thick upward at eve: fine
25	8	29,73	37,5	47	57	2	W 1	foggy
	2	29,83	41	46,5	56	2	WNW 2	. clear night
26	8	30,05	39	45	58	2	WNW 1	foggy. more cloudy
	2	30,14	41	48	58	4	WNW 2	foggy. cloudless night: thick upward
27	8	30,20	33	45	60	f	W 1	
	2	30,22	39,5	46,5	61	h	W 1	. little cloudy and wet at times
28	8	30,08	45,5	48	66	4	WSW 2	hazy. little wet at times
F	2	30,03	50,5	50	65	5	WSW 2	. little rain at times
29	8	29,79	48	51	65	h	WSW 1	. chiefly gentle rain: shower
	2	29,65	52	52,5	66	5	WNW 1	little rain. fine
30	8	30,33	40	50,5	61	1	N 1	foggy
	2	30,48	41,5	50,5	54	1	N 1	hazy, thick upward at eve

THERESA BALDUCCI: A TALE FROM THE ITALIAN.

TWO years had elapſed ſince Thereſa Balducci, a Florentine lady, was left a widow, with two ſons. Theſe being out of tutelage, poſſeſſed of large property, no longer curbed by any reſtraint, and excited by wicked companions, gave themſelves up to all the irregularities of miſguided youth. In vain did their mother endeavour with perſuaſions, prayers, and tears, to recall them from their evil courſe of life: ſhe was was not liſtened to. The elder brother lived at Florence, and the younger was travelling through Italy.

One night when the diſconſolate mother was alone, lamenting the diſſolute conduct of her ſons, ſhe ſaw her doors ſuddenly thrown open, and a ſtranger with violence ruſh in, pale, trembling, and breathleſs: his looks beſpoke trouble and diſmay, and his countenance was overſpread with terror and affright, holding a bloody ſword in his hand. At ſuch an unexpected and horrid ſight, ſhe was ſtruck with aſtoniſhment and terror; but the ſtranger, throwing himſelf at her feet, addreſſed her in a ſupplicating tone, ah! madam, ſaid he, I beſeech you, have compaſſion on an unfortunate man. I am a Roman, and arrived here a few days ago. Having finiſhed the buſineſs which brought me here, I was going to my inn, to prepare for my departure. Not far from this houſe, a man who was entirely unknown to me, met me, and in paſſing, puſhed me rudely; I complained to him of his uncivil behaviour: to his rudeneſs, he added inſults and abuſe. I reſented them: he redoubled his outrages, and dared even inſolently to threaten me. Unable to bear any longer his provoking behaviour, I drew my ſword: he did the ſame, we fought, and on receiving a wound, he fell to the ground. Heaven knows how I grieve for this involuntary crime! But you, madam, pray have pity on an unfortunate man. Confuſed and diſmayed, I immediately betook myſelf to flight. Not knowing where to ſeek a refuge, I have ventured in this houſe, which my good fortune made me find open. Pray! let it be an aſylum to me for a ſhort time, till I can at a late hour eſcape from purſuit.

The lady was ſtruck with horror at the recital; a gloomy preſentiment filled her mind with a thouſand terrors: but liſtening at that moment only to the voice of humanity and compaſſion, ſhe ſhowed him to her cloſet, and ſhut him in.

The preſentiment of the unfortunate mother was too ſoon verified; for a few minutes after, ſhe heard a freſh noiſe, and going to the hall, ſaw her ſon brought in, whoſe blood guſhed out from a large wound in his breaſt. A loud ſhriek was the natural conſequence of ſuch a ſight, and her ſon, who was enfeebled by the loſs of blood, and felt himſelf approaching to his untimely end, collected his remaining ſtrength, and turning to his mother, ſaid, you ſee, madam, in me, an example of the juſt judgements of heaven: I have deſerved it. Let my death at leaſt be a warning to my brother. If the man who wounded me ſhould be apprehended, I beg you will take upon you his defence. He is innocent. I attacked him ..... Having finiſhed theſe words, he expired; and his mother fell upon him, and fainted. Being carried away from her ſon's bloody corpſe, the attendants were a long time in fear for her life; nor did ſhe recover without the greateſt difficulty: then ſhe burſt out in tears, and bewailed her loſs. She inceſſantly called her ſon; aſked to ſee him again; and the perſons who attended her were obliged to carry her forcibly out of the apartment. It is eaſy to gueſs what grief and terror agitated the young ſtranger, who, from the cloſet wherein he was concealed, heard all the tumult, and the horror of this tragical event, of which unfortunately

he had been the cauſe! On one hand, the grief for having occaſioned the unhappineſs of a reſpectable mother, made him wiſh he had fallen inſtead of his enemy: on the other, the fear of being diſcovered, made his blood freeze at every freſh noiſe he heard.

In this agitation of mind and painful terror, he remained till paſt midnight, when all the houſe being quiet, and the lady's grief having yielded in a ſlight degree to reflection, ſhe went ſhuddering to the cloſet and opened it. The young ſtranger proſtrated himſelf at her feet:—Heaven, ſaid he, heaven I call to witneſs, if I would not give all my blood ..... Riſe, ſaid the lady, you have made me the unhappieſt of mothers that ever lived; but I am acquainted with your innocence: my ſon has enjoined me even to defend you, and I muſt do it. A chaiſe will be ready in a few minutes to carry you out of this country; one of my ſervants will eſcort you to the frontiers; this purſe will furniſh to your wants. May heaven grant you that peace of mind you have deprived me of.

The young Roman felt himſelf touched to the heart with grief and tenderneſs at ſuch unparalleled generoſity. Ah! never, ſaid he, never ſhall I pardon myſelf for having grieved ſo adorable a lady. He then offered up a thouſand prayers for her proſperity, a thouſand times he kiſſed her beneficent hand, and departed with tears in his eyes, firmly reſolved to do all in his power to prove to her, whenever fortune ſhould offer him the means, his ſorrow and gratitude.

Fortune ſoon preſented to him the deſired opportunity. He had hardly paſſed Viterbo, when he ſaw a young gentleman attacked by two robbers, and had much difficulty to defend himſelf from them. He ſprung from the chaiſe, and flew to his aſſiſtance. The aſſailants fled; but the young gentleman was wounded. He took him in his chaiſe, and humanely conducted him to Viterbo: fortunately the wound was ſlight, and he was ſoon cured.

The young gentleman gave a thouſand thanks to his brave deliverer; but who can expreſs the conſolation and joy the Roman felt, on hearing he was brother to the very perſon he had unfortunately killed at Florence? Embracing him tenderly, he ſaid, what thanks do I not owe to heaven, for granting me the means to acknowledge, in part, the benefit I received from your adorable mother! Eternally will it be impreſſed in my mind, and never will my gratitude be ſatisfied, whatever I may do. Haſten to ſee her; ſhe ſtands in extreme need of you, and ſighs with impatience for your return. Tell her, that the ſame perſon whoſe life ſhe ſaved, has now had the happineſs to make uſe of her gift in your favour; and that he is deſirous to employ it entirely for you both.

When young Balducci arrived at Florence, he was cruelly ſurpriſed at hearing from his mother what had happened: his finding in the ſame perſon the author of his brother's death, and his own deliverer, excited in his breaſt a confuſion of paſſions which combated violently againſt each other. Hearing, however, of his innocence, the horror he at firſt conceived againſt him ſubſided gradually, and his ſentiments of gratitude for the life he owed him, regained their natural aſcendancy. Though ſincerely lamenting the death of his brother, he could not omit making uſe of all his intereſt to obtain the Roman's pardon. The two dreadful examples he had before his eyes made the deepeſt impreſſion on his mind. He ſaw to what fatal dangers the errors of heedleſs and diſſipated youth generally lead: therefore, changing his mode of life, by his wiſe conduct, he finally comforted his mother for the afflicting loſs ſhe had ſuſtained.

HINTS *regarding* CATTLE. *By Sir* John Sinclair.

[From his 'Eſſays on Miſcellaneous Subjects.']

THE object that every intelligent farmer ought to have in view, who breeds and maintains domeſtic animals, *is for fit*; conſequently he ought to find out, as Bakewell happily expreſſed it, '*the beſt machine for converting herbage, and other food for animals, into money.*'

For that purpoſe, it is neceſſary to aſcertain the ſhape and nature of the animal which makes the moſt profitable uſe of the food it eats: that, however, muſt depend much on the price of the different articles which the animal produces. For inſtance, tallow formerly bore a higher price than meat, and conſequently was a greater object in the breeding of cattle and ſheep than at preſent, when it ſells at an inferior price, and the various articles produced from it have become ſo valuable, as to render a good dairy-cow the moſt profitable of all our domeſtic animals, and conſequently entitled to peculiar attention. Meat, however, is at preſent the object moſt generally attended to; and it is certain that the breeding of cattle and ſheep for the ſhambles was never carried to ſuch perfection as it has lately been brought to in England.

The cauſe of this it may not be improper briefly to explain.

Stock, in general (and this is ſtill the caſe in a multitude of inſtances, and muſt always be ſo when the breeder has not food at command, calculated for fattening as well as rearing his cattle) was formerly bred by one ſet of men, fattened or prepared for the market by a ſecond, and killed by a third. While theſe three occupations continued diſtinct, with only occaſional communications or intercourſe with each other, no great improvement could be effected. That diviſion of labour, or ſeparation of profeſſions, ſo uſeful in manufactures, was pernicious to this important branch of agriculture, by preventing the principles on which the improvement of our domeſtic animals might be effected from being aſcertained.

A perſon, however, of ſtrong natural ſagacity (Robert Bakewell, of Diſhley, in the county of Leiceſter) though he did not unite to the extent that his diſciple, Culley, has done, the two diſtinct occupations of breeder and grazier, yet having acquired great ſkill in grazing, by preſerving his breeding-ſtock in the higheſt poſſible condition, and having called in to his aid all the ſkill and experience which the butcher had acquired, was thus enabled to aſcertain the principles, not only of breeding domeſtic animals, ſo as to anſwer the common expectations of the farmer, but alſo of bringing them to a degree of perfection, of which, before his time, they were ſcarcely ſuppoſed capable: and by directing the public attention in general, and that of the farmer in particular, to the art of breeding, he has in various reſpects moſt eſſentially benefited his country. By his example that moſt important ſyſtem was very generally eſtabliſhed, of certain breeders directing their whole attention to the rearing of males, and letting them for the ſeaſon, at ſuch prices as would amply indemnify the breeder for all the care and expence he had beſtowed upon them; a practice which had originally taken place in Lincolnſhire, but had never been carried to any great height till adopted by Mr. Bakewell.

In diſcuſſing the important ſubject of cattle, it is proper, in the firſt place, to obſerve that a diſtinct breed of cattle may be formed, 1, in conſequence of the ſoil of the country, and the vegetables it produces; 2, from the climate, which, in various reſpects, muſt affect the animals living under its influence; 3, from a particular ſhape, ſize, or colour becoming faſhionable, and conſequently in great

demand; 4, from the nature of the animals that may be imported into it from other counties; and, 5, from the various croſſes which have been made among breeds in ſome reſpects diſtinct, and from which a new variety may ariſe.

It is not propoſed, however, to attempt any particular enumeration of the various breeds in theſe kingdoms; for though differing in regard to colour, ſize, &c. they claim, in many reſpects, the ſame valuable properties.

The great object, therefore, to aſcertain is, what particulars are eſſential to form a perfect breed; becauſe, if theſe are once pointed out, there is no ſort that may not be improved by attentive breeders, either by croſſing with other ſtock, or by ſelecting the beſt ſpecimens of the breed itſelf, ſo as to acquire the qualities that may be wiſhed for. Theſe particulars may be conſidered under the following general heads, namely. 1. Size. 2. Shape. 3. Diſpoſition. 4. Hardineſs. 5. Aptitude to feed. 6. Early maturity. 7. Milk. 8. Quality of fleſh. 9. Fat. 10. Hide. And, laſtly, Fitneſs for working.

Of the Particulars eſſential in forming a perfect breed.

1. *Size.* It is difficult to lay down any general rule for the ſize of cattle, as ſo much muſt depend on the nature of the paſture, and on the means which the grazier has for ultimately fattening them; nor has it yet been proved, by deciſive and repeated experiments, whether the large or the ſmall ſized pay beſt for the food they eat. The experiments ought to be made with ſimilar breeds, but of different ſizes, and the particulars to aſcertain are, whether it does not require a much greater quantity of food, 1, to rear a great ox than a ſmall one; 2, to feed him when working; and, 3, to fatten him afterward. A large calf certainly requires more milk than a ſmall one, but if it pays as well for what it conſumes, or grows in proportion to what it takes, there is no objection, on that account, on the ſcore of profit; nor if a large ox eats more, provided he works proportionally more than a ſmall one. In regard to fattening, the experiments of lord Egremont are rather favorable to the opinion, that fattening ſtock do not eat in proportion to their weight, but that a ſmall ox, when kept in a ſtall, will eat proportionally more, without fattening quicker than a large one.

Without pronouncing deciſively on a queſtion ſo much conteſted, as whether large or ſmall cattle ought to be preferred (which will require indeed a great number of experiments finally to determine) I ſhall endeavour ſhortly to ſum up the arguments made uſe of on either ſide.

In favour of ſmall or moderate ſized cattle, it is contended, 1. That a large animal requires proportionally more food than two ſmaller ones of the ſame weight. 2. That the meat of the large animal is not ſo fine grained, and conſequently does not afford ſuch delicate food. 3. That large animals are not ſo well calculated for general conſumption as the moderate ſized, particularly in hot weather. 4. That large animals poach paſtures more than ſmall ones. 3. That they are not ſo active, conſequently not ſo fit for working. 6. That ſmall cows, of the true dairy ſort, give proportionally more milk than large ones. 7. That ſmall oxen can be fattened with graſs merely, whereas the large require to be ſtall-fed, the expenſe of which exhauſts the profit of the farmer. 8. That it is much eaſier to procure well-ſhaped and kindly-feeding ſtock of a ſmall ſize than of a large one. 9. That ſmall-ſized cattle may be kept by many perſons who cannot afford either to purchaſe or to maintain large ones; and, laſtly, if any accident happens to a ſmall-ſized animal the loſs is leſs material.

In favour of the large-ſized, it is on the other hand contended, 1. That without debating whether from their birth till they are ſlaughtered, the large or the ſmall ox eats moſt for its

ſize, yet that, on the whole, the large one will ultimately pay the farmer as well for the food it eats. 2. That though ſome large oxen are coarſe-grained, yet that where attention is paid to the breed, the large ox is as delicate food as the ſmall one. 3. That if the ſmall-ſized are better calculated for the conſumption of private families, of villages, or of ſmall towns, yet that the large ox is fitter for the markets of large towns, and in particular of the metropolis. 4. Even admitting the fleſh of the ſmall-ſized ox is better when eaten freſh, yet the meat of the large-ſized is unqueſtionably better calculated for ſalting, a moſt eſſential object in a maritime and commercial country, for the thickeſt beef, as Culley juſtly remarks, by retaining its juices when ſalted, is the beſt calculated for long voyages. 5. That the hide of the large ox is of infinite conſequence in various manufactures, 6. That where the paſtures are good, cattle will increaſe in ſize, without any particular attention on the part of the breeder, which proves that large cattle are the proper ſtock for ſuch paſtures. 7. That the art of fattening cattle by oil-cake, &c. having been much improved and extended, the advantage thereof would be loſt, unleſs large oxen were bred, as ſmall ones can be fattened merely with graſs and turnips. And, laſtly, that large cattle are better calculated for working than ſmall ones, two large ones being equal to four ſmall ones, in the plough or the cart.

Such are the arguments generally made uſe of on both ſides of the queſtion; from which it is evident that much muſt depend upon paſture, taſte, markets, &c. But, on the whole, though the unthinking multitude may admire, an enormous bullock, more reſembling an elephant than an ox, yet the intelligent breeder (unleſs his paſtures are of a nature peculiarly forcing) will naturally prefer a moderate ſize for the ſtock he rears; or, perhaps, may adopt that plan of breeding, according to which the males are large and ſtrong, and the females of a ſmall ſize, yet not unproductive to the dairy.

2. *Shape.* It is extremely deſirable to bring the ſhape of cattle to as much perfection as poſſible; at the ſame time profit and utility ought to be more attended to than mere beauty, which may pleaſe the eye but will not fill the pocket, and which, depending much upon caprice, muſt be often changing.

As to the ſhape of cattle, however, breeders ſeem to concur in regard to the following particulars, to wit, 1. That the form ought to be compact, ſo that no part of the animal ſhould be diſproportioned to the other. 2. That the carcaſe ſhould be deep. 3. Broad. And, 4. That the head, the bones, and other parts of little value, ſhould be as ſmall as poſſible.

It is evident, however, that the form ought to be adapted, as much as poſſible, to the wiſhes of the conſumer. For inſtance; if cattle are to be ſold in London, or in other places, where beef for rump-ſteaks is much in demand, and ſells higher than any other parts of the carcaſe, that is an object to be attended to in cattle bred for the Smithfield, or any ſimilar market, which would not be eſſential in other counties where no ſuch diſtinction is made in the meat that is conſumed.

3. *Diſpoſition.* It is of great importance to have a breed diſtinguiſhed by a tame and docile diſpoſition, without however being deficient in ſpirit. Such a breed is not ſo apt to injure fences, to break into other fields, &c. and unqueſtionably leſs food will rear, ſupport, and fatten them. As tameneſs of diſpoſition is much owing to the manner in which the animal is brought up, attention to inure them early to be familiar and docile cannot be too much recommended.

4. *Hardineſs.* In the wilder and bleaker parts of the country, hardineſs of conſtitution is a moſt important requiſite; and, even where ſtock is

beſt attended to, it is of eſſential conſequence that they ſhould be as little liable as poſſible to diſeaſe, or any hereditary diſtemper; as being *lyery*, or black-fleſhed, or having yellow fat, and the like. It is a popular belief, that a dark colour is an indication of hardineſs; and that cattle with light colours are ſofter and more delicate. A rough pile is alſo reckoned a deſirable property in a Highland breed; and, above all, *in out-winterers*, as they are called, or cattle kept out all winter, thoſe who will face the ſtorm, and not thoſe who will ſhrink from it, are in requeſt *.

5. *Eaſily maintained.* It is well known, in the human race, that ſome individuals eat a great deal, and never get fatter; while others, with little food grow immoderately corpulent. As the ſame takes place in regard to cattle and to other animals, it is evident how important it muſt be to aſcertain the circumſtances which produce a property ſo peculiarly valuable in them. Bakewell ſtrongly inſiſted on the advantage of ſmall bones for that purpoſe; and the celebrated John Hunter declared, that ſmall bones were generally attended with corpulence in all the various ſubjects he had an opportunity of examining. It is probable, however, that a tendency to fatten ariſes from ſome peculiar circumſtance in the internal ſtructure of the body, of which ſmall bones are, in general, an indication; and that it is only in this point of view that they ought to be conſidered eſſential, for they often weigh as heavy, and conſequently require as much nouriſhment as large ones. Small bones, like thoſe of the blood horſe, being compact and heavy: large bones, like thoſe of the common dray or cart horſe, being extremely porous, and conſequently light for their apparent bulk. Indeed, cattle ought not only to be eaſily maintained, in point of quantity, but, in remote and uncultivated diſtricts, in regard to the quality alſo of the food they conſume; and it is certain, that ſome particular animals will fatten as well on coarſe fare as others will do on the moſt luxuriant.

6. *Early maturity.* Arriving ſoon at perfection is a material object for the breeder, as his profit muſt in a great meaſure depend upon it. This is a circumſtance indeed not only extremely material to the farmer, but in a populous country, where the conſumption of meat is great, to the public alſo; as it evidently tends to furniſh greater ſupplies to the market. In regard to this point, however, ſome wiſh to make a diſtinction between ſheep and cattle; as the latter, they affirm, might pay for its keep by working or by milk. But is not the farmer indemnified for the expence of maintaining ſheep by the valuable manure it yields, and the fleece which it annually produces, which, when manufactured, is the ſource of of ſuch profit to the community †?

7. *Milk.* The dairy is ſuch an object in many parts of the kingdom, and it is ſo deſirable to have a living machine that can convert, in abundance and perfection, the food it eats, to ſo uſeful, ſo profitable, and ſo eſſential an article as milk, that the breed the moſt diſtinguiſhed for that property muſt always be in requeſt. Whether a particular breed ought to be kept up for that ſole purpoſe, or whether it is preferable to have ſtock partly calculated for the butcher and partly for the dairy, is a point well entitled to the moſt deliberate diſcuſſion. It is probable that, by great attention, a breed might be reared,

* It is remarked in the Highlands, that in bad weather hardy cattle keep their backbones ſtraight, whereas ſoft ones bend them. Hence the crooked appearance of bad cattle.

† In regard to early maturity, both as to ſheep and cattle, it evidently depends much on the animal being conſtantly kept in the beſt poſſible order, for if it is once ſuffered to fall back, it requires a conſiderable ſpace of time, and much trouble and expence, before it can recover what it has loſt.

the males of which might be well calculated in every reſpect for the ſhambles, and the females of which might, when young, produce abundant quantities of good milk, yet when they reached eight or nine years of age might be eaſily fattened. This would be the moſt valuable breed that could be propagated in any country, and indeed ſome of the beſt Engliſh and Scotch breeds have almoſt reached that point of perfection.

8. *Quality of Fleſh.* The quality of the fleſh muſt certainly depend much upon age and ſex, as old cattle muſt have firmer fleſh than young, and heifers muſt be finer grained than oxen. The excellence of the meat alſo muſt depend much upon tho ſize of the animal, and the food on which it is fattened. On the whole, however, there is no better ſign of good fleſh than when it is *marbled*, or the fat and lean nicely interwoven, and alternately mixed with each other. Some of the Scotch breeds, (the moſt northerly in particular) when properly fed, and when they arrive at a proper age, enjoy this quality in great perfection; and hence there cannot be either wholeſomer food, or more delicious eating.

9. *Fat.* The advantages or diſadvantages of fattening cattle and ſheep, at leaſt to the extent uſually practiſed at preſent, is a point that has of late attracted much public attention. But any controverſy upon that ſubject muſt neceſſarily ariſe from want of proper diſcrimination. Fat meat is generally accounted more nouriſhing than lean; but then none, except perſons in the moſt vigorous ſtate of health, can digeſt it; conſequently it is unfit for general conſumption. Dr. Willich, in his Lectures on Diet and Regimen, very juſtly obſerves, 'that though fat meat is more nouriſhing than lean, (fat being the cellular ſubſtance of animal jelly) yet, to digeſt this oily matter, there are required, on account of its difficult ſolubility, a good bile, much ſaliva, and a vigorous ſtomach.' Fat meat alſo, unleſs prepared with peculiar care, is apt to loſe much in cooking; but there are modes by which no loſs is ſuſtained in dreſſing it, which remove that objection. For inſtance, the keelmen of Newcaſtle purchaſe great quantities of fat meat. Being generally of Scotch extraction, they follow the cuſtom, ſo uſual in Scotland, of boiling their meat; the broth of which feeds the family, while they themſelves eat the meat, generally in a cold ſtate, and in great quantities, and are thus enabled to go through the heavy labour they uſually undergo. In many diſtricts manufacturers and others bake their meat with potatoes under it, and the fat, melted by the fire, falls upon the potatoes, and improves much their taſte, and the nouriſhment to be derived from them. In either of theſe ways, little, if any, of the ſubſtance of the meat is loſt. But, according to the uſual mode of boiling or roaſting fat meat, the loſs is conſiderable, and the meat itſelf is far from being well calculated for nice or delicate ſtomachs. The art of fattening animals, however, is one that ſeems fit to be encouraged, as likely to promote uſeful knowledge; and although, in the courſe of trying a number of experiments, ſome exceſſes may be committed, yet, on the whole, much advantage muſt be derived from them.

10. *Hide.* It is well known, that the grazier and the butcher judge of the aptitude that any animal has to fatten from the touch of the ſkin. When its hide feels ſoft and ſilky, it ſtrongly indicates a tendency in the animal to take on meat; and it is evident, that a fine and ſoft ſkin muſt be more pliable, and more eaſily ſtretched out to receive any extraordinary quantity of fleſh, than a thick or tough one. At the ſame time, thick hides are of great importance in various manufactures. Indeed they are neceſſary in cold countries, where cattle are much expoſed to the inclemency of the ſeaſons; and in the beſt breeds of Highland cattle, the ſkin is

thick in proportion to their ſize, without being ſo tough as to be prejudicial to their capacity of fattening. It appears, from Columella's deſcription of the beſt kind of ox, that the advantage of a ſoft ſkin is not a new diſcovery, but was perfectly well known to the huſbandmen of ancient Italy.

Laſtly, *Working*. It is a moſt important queſtion, not yet finally aſcertained, whether the public or the individual gain by working oxen. In the infancy of agriculture, when huſbandmen had inconſiderable capitals, and little work to do, it might be for their intereſt to uſe oxen, as they were cheaper to rear and to maintain, and would always fetch ſomething. But the great farmers of modern times, who have large capitals to act upon, and conſtant occupation for their teams, will generally find it adviſable, though they may employ oxen for ſome purpoſes, yet, on the whole, to make uſe of horſes. At the ſame time, the population of a country may increaſe ſo much, that the ground muſt be cultivated, either by the hands of man, as in China, or by animals which man will eat; and the price of beef may become ſo high as to caſt the balance in favour of oxen. On theſe grounds it is deſirable, that the general breed of cattle in a country ſhould be capable of working. Indeed, as ſtock ought to produce ſomething, even when riſing to their full growth, if oxen are not to be worked, cows ought to be more generally kept, as the produce of their milk is ſo profitable, unleſs where paſture is of little value, as in Wales, or the mountainous diſtricts of Scotland and Ireland.

Theſe ſhort hints contain the ſubſtance of what has occurred to me on the principles of breeding cattle; and the reſult is, that cattle ought to be,

1. Of a moderate ſize, unleſs where the food is of a nature peculiarly forcing.
2. Of a ſhape the moſt likely to yield profit to the farmer.
3. Of a docile diſpoſition, without being deficient in ſpirit.
4. Hardy, and not liable to diſeaſe.
5. Eaſily maintained, and on food not of a coſtly nature.
6. Arriving ſoon at maturity.
7. Producing conſiderable quantities of milk.
8. Having fleſh of an excellent quality.
9. Having a tendency to take on fat.
10. Having a valuable hide, And,

Laſtly, calculated (ſhould it be judged neceſſary) for working.

STENCILLING.

ON this proceſs, which is employed in diffent manufactures, Mr. T. Gill furniſhes a very uſeful hint, and may poſſibly lead to an extenſion of the uſe of ſtencils:

'Wiſhing,' ſays he, 'to produce ſome copies of a miniature profile, lately taken by Mr. Hawkins' patent method (viz. by a machine, which being traced over the face itſelf, at the ſame time draws the outlines of the profile on a reduced ſcale) which was cut in thin wove poſt paper; I coated it pretty thick on both ſides with the cement No xvii. deſcribed in the Philoſophical Magazine, vol. xiv. p. 122; which dried inſtantly, and rendered it perfectly impervious to oil and water, and ſufficiently ſtiff. In ſhort, the paper became a very excellent ſtencil, with which I was enabled to multiply the profiles with as much facility as if it had been a braſs impreſſion plate. I think the above information may be uſeful to manufacturers of paper hangings, cards, floor cloths, and in ſhort to all who employ ſtencils, as a method of preparing them, far ſuperior to that in general uſe; which conſiſts in coating them with boiled linſeed oil, as the oil requires much time to become dry, and, I believe, would never render the ſtencil ſo firm and durable, as by this new proceſs.'

CORRESPONDENCE

BETWEEN

HIS MAJESTY, THE PRINCE OF WALES, THE DUKE OF YORK, AND MR. ADDINGTON,

ON THE OFFER OF MILITARY SERVICE MADE BY HIS ROYAL HIGHNESS THE PRINCE OF WALES.

Carlton House,
Sir, July 18, 1803.

THE subject on which I address you presses so heavily on my mind, and daily acquires such additional importance, that notwithstanding my wish to avoid any interference with the disposition made by his Majesty's Ministers, I find it impossible to withhold or delay an explicit statement of my feelings, to which I would direct your most serious consideration.

When it was officially communicated to Parliament that the avowed object of the enemy was a descent on our kingdoms, the question became so obvious that the circumstances of the times required the voluntary tender of personal services; when Parliament, in consequence of this representation, agreed to extraordinary measures for the defence of these realms alone, it was evident the danger was not believed dubious or remote. Animated by the same spirit which pervaded the nation at large, conscious of the duties which I owed to his Majesty and the Country, I seized the earliest opportunity to express my desire of undertaking the responsibility of a military command. I neither did, nor do presume upon supposed talents, as entitling me to such an appointment. I am aware I do not possess the experience of actual warfare; at the same time I cannot regard myself as totally unqualified or deficient in military science, since I have long made the service my particular study. My chief pretensions were founded on a sense of those advantages which my example might produce to the state, by exciting the loyal energies of the nation, and a knowledge of those expectations which the public had a right to form as to the personal exertions of their Princes at a moment like the present. The more elevated my situation, in so much the efforts of zeal became necessarily greater, and I confess, that if duty had not been so paramount, a reflection on the splendid atchievements of my predecessors would have excited in me the spirit of emulation; when, however, in addition to such recollections, the nature of the contest in which we are about to engage was impressed on my consideration, I should, indeed, have been devoid of every virtuous sentiment if I felt no reluctance in remaining a passive spectator of armaments, which have for their object the very existance of the British Empire.

Thus was I influenced to make my offer of service, and I did imagine that his Majesty's Ministers would have attached to it more value. But when I find that, from some unknown cause, my appointment seems to remain so long undetermined; when I feel myself exposed to the obloquy of being regarded by the country as passing my time indifferent to the events which menace, and insensible to the call of patriotism, much more of glory, it then behoves me to examine my rights, and to remind his Majesty's Ministers that the claim which I have advanced is strictly constitutional, and justified by precedent; and that, in the present situation of Europe, to deny my exercising it is fatal to my own immediate honour, and the future interests of the Crown.—I can never forget that I have solemn obligations imposed on me by my birth, and that I should ever shew myself foremost in contributing to the preservation of the country. The time is arrived when I may prove myself sensible of the duties of my situation, and of evincing my devotion to that Sovereign, who, by nature as well as public worth, commands my most affectionate attachment.

I repeat, that I should be sorry to embarrass the government at any time,

most particularly at such a crisis; but, since no event in my future life can compensate me for the misfortune of not participating in the honours and dangers which await the brave men destined to oppose an invading enemy, I cannot forego the earnest renewal of my application.—All I solicit is a more ostensible situation than that in which I am at present placed; for, situated as I am, as a mere Colonel of a regiment, the Major-General commanding the Brigade of which such a regiment must form a part, would justly expect and receive the full credit of pre-arrangement and successful enterprize.

I remain, Sir,
Very sincerely, yours,
(Signed) G. P.

R. H. Henry Addington, &c. &c.

July 26, 1803.

A week has now elapsed since the Prince of Wales transmitted to Mr. Addington a letter on a subject of the highest importance; though he cannot anticipate a refusal to so reasonable a demand, he must still express some surprise that a communication of such a nature should have remained so long unanswered.

When the Prince of Wales desired to be placed in a situation which might enable him to shew to the people of England the example of zeal, fidelity, and devotion to his Sovereign, he naturally thought that he was only fulfilling his appropriate duty, as the first subject of the realm, in which, as it has pleased Providence to cause him to have been born, so he is determined to maintain himself by all those honourable exertions which the exigencies of these critical times peculiarly demand. The motives of his conduct cannot be misconceived or misrepresented. He has, at a moment when every thing is at stake that is dear and sacred to him and to the nation, asked to be advanced in military rank, because he may have his birth-right to fight for, the throne of his Father to defend, the glory of the people of England to uphold, which is dearer to him than life, which has yet remained unsullied under the Princes of the House of Brunswick, and which he trusts will be transmitted pure and uncontaminated to the latest generations. Animated by such sentiments, he has naturally desired to be placed in a situation where he can act according to the feelings of his heart and the dictates of his conscience.

In making the offer, in again repeating it, the Prince of Wales considers that he has only performed his duty to himself, to the state, to the King, to Europe, whose fate may be involved in the issue of this contest. If this tender of his services is rejected, he shall ever lament that all his efforts have been fruitless, and that he has been deprived of making those exertions which the circumstances of the empire, his own inclinations, and his early and long attention to military affairs, would have rendered so particularly grateful to himself, and, he trusts, not entirely useless to the public.

Downing-street, July 27, 1803.

Upon receiving the letter with which Mr. Addington was last week honoured by the Prince of Wales, he assured his Royal Highness that it should be immediately laid before the King: this was accordingly done, and the letter is still in his Majesty's possession. A communication was afterwards made to His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, in a mode and through a channel which Mr. Addington humbly hoped his Royal Highness would approve. Mr. A. however, now finds it to be incumbent on him, in consequence of the expectation which has been expressed by his Royal Highness, to state, that his Majesty, on being informed of the sentiments and wishes of the Prince of Wales, applauded, in the strongest manner, the feelings by which his Royal Highness is actuated, but referred, nevertheless, to the answers which his Majesty had judged it necessary to return to similar representations—which, in obedience to the *commands* of his Royal Highness, had been laid before his Majesty upon former occasions.

Carlton House, July 28, 1803.

The Prince of Wales has received Mr. Addington's written communication of the last night. The Prince of Wales has only to observe, that he requires Mr. A. to submit to his Majesty his last note, dated the 26th of this month.

Downing-street, July 28, 1803,
half-past 11, P. M.

Mr. Addington is just honoured with the commands of the Prince of Wales,

and will not fail to lay his Royal Highness's letter, dated 26th of this month, before the King.

Downing-street, Aug. 1.

Sir,

In obedience to the commands of your Royal Highness, I laid before his Majesty the letter dated 26th July, with which your Royal Highness had honoured me, and I have it in command from his Majesty to acquaint your Royal Highness that "the King had referred Mr. Addington to the order he had before given him, with the addition—that the King's opinion being fixed, he desired that no further mention should be made to him upon the subject." I have the honour to be,

With, Sir, every sentiment of respect and deference, your Royal Highness's most obedient humble servant,

(Signed) HENRY ADDINGTON.

LETTER TO THE KING.

Sir,

A correspondence has taken place between Mr. Addington and myself on a subject which deeply involves my honour and character. The answers which I have received from that gentleman, the communication which he has made to the House of Commons, leave me no hope but in appeal to the justice of your Majesty. I make that appeal with confidence, because I feel that you are my natural advocate, and with the sanguine hope that the ears of an affectionate father may still be opened to the supplications of a dutiful son.—I ask to be allowed to display the best energies of my character; to shed the last drop of my blood in support of your Majesty's person, crown, and dignity; for this is not a war for empire, glory, or dominion, but for existence. In this contest, the lowest and humblest of your Majesty's subjects have been called on—it would therefore little become me who am the *first*, and who stand at the very foot-stool of the throne, to remain a tame, an idle, and lifeless spectator of the mischiefs which threaten us, unconscious of the dangers which surround us, and indifferent to the consequences which may follow. Hanover is lost—England is menaced with invasion—Ireland is in rebellion—Europe is at the foot of France. At such a moment the Prince of Wales, yielded to none of your servants in zeal and devotion—to none of your subjects in duty—to none of your children in tenderness and affection, presumes to approach you, and again to repeat those offers which he already made through your Majesty's Ministers. A feeling of honest ambition; a sense of what I owe to myself and to my family; but, above all, the fear of sinking in the estimation of that gallant army which may be the support of your Majesty's crown and my best hope hereafter, command me to persevere, and to assure your Majesty, with all humility and respect, that, conscious of the justice of my claim, no human power can ever induce me to relinquish it.—Allow me to say, Sir, that I am bound to adopt this line of conduct by every motive dear to me as a man, and sacred to me as a Prince. Ought I not to come forward in a moment of unexampled difficulty and danger? Ought I not to share in the glory of victory, when I have every thing to lose by defeat? The highest places in your Majesty's service are filled by the younger branches of the Royal Family; to me alone no place is assigned. I am not thought worthy to be the Junior Major-General of your army. If I could submit in silence to such indignities, I should indeed deserve such treatment, and prove to the satisfaction of your enemies, and my own, that I am entirely incapable of those exertions, which my birth and the circumstances of the times peculiarly call for. Standing so near the throne, when I am debased, the cause of royalty is wounded; I cannot sink in public opinion, without the participation of your Majesty in my degradation. Therefore, every motive of private feeling, and of public duty, induce me to implore your Majesty, to review your decision, and to place me in that situation, which my birth, the duties of my station, the example of my predecessors, and the expectations of the people of England entitle me to claim.—Should I be disappointed in the hope which I have formed, should this last appeal to the justice of my Sovereign, and the affection of my Father, fail of success, I shall lament in silent submission his determination, but Europe, the world, and posterity must judge between us—I have done my duty; my conscience

acquits me; my reason tells me that I was perfectly justified in the request which I have made, because no reasonable arguments have ever been adduced in answer to my pretensions. The precedents in our history are in my favour, but if they were not, the times in which we live, and especially the exigencies of the present moment, require us to become an example to our posterity.—No other cause of refusal has or can be assigned, except that it was the will of your Majesty. To that will and pleasure I bow with every degree of humility and resignation; but I can never cease to complain of the severity which has been exercised against me, and of the injustice which I have suffered, till I cease to exist. I have the honour to subscribe myself, with all possible devotion, your Majesty's most dutiful and affectionate Son and Subject,

(Signed) G. P.

Brighton, Aug. 6.

FROM THE KING.

Windsor, 7th Aug. 1803.

My dear Son,

Though I applaud your zeal and your spirit, of which, I trust, no one can suppose any of my family wanting; yet, considering the repeated declarations I have made of my determination on your former applications to the same purpose, I had flattered myself to have heard no farther on the subject. Should the implacable enemy so far succeed as to land, you will have an opportunity of shewing your zeal at the head of your regiment. It will be the duty of every man to stand forward on such an occasion; and I shall certainly think it mine to set an example in defence of every thing that is dear to me and to my people.

I ever remain, my dear Son, your most affectionate Father,

(Signed) G. R.

FROM THE PRINCE TO THE KING.

Brighton, 22d August, 1803.

Sir,

I have delayed thus long an answer to the letter which your Majesty did me the honour to write, from a wish to refer to a former correspondence which took place between us in the year 1798. Those letters were mislaid, and some days elapsed before I could discover them: they have since been found. Allow me then, Sir, to recal to your recollection the expressions you were graciously pleased to use, and which I once before took the liberty of reminding you of, when I solicited foreign service, upon my first coming into the army. They were, Sir, that your Majesty did not then see the opportunity for it; but that if any thing was to arise at home, I ought to be "first and foremost." There cannot be a stronger expression in the English language, or one more consonant to the feelings which animate my heart. In this I agree most perfectly with your Majesty—"*I ought to be first and foremost.*" It is the place which my birth assigns me—which Europe—which the English nation expect me to fill—and which the former assurances of your Majesty might naturally have led me to hope I should occupy. After such a declaration I could hardly expect to be told that my place was at the head of a regiment of dragoons.

I understand from your Majesty, that it is your intention, Sir, in pursuance of that noble example which you have ever shewn during the course of your reign, to place yourself at the head of the people of England. My next brother, the Duke of York, commands the army; the younger branches of my family are either Generals or Lieutenant-Generals; and I, who am the Prince of Wales, am to remain a Colonel of Dragoons. There is something so humiliating in the contrast, that those who are at a distance would either doubt the reality, or suppose that to be my fault which is only my misfortune. Who could imagine that I who am the oldest Colonel in the service, had asked for the rank of a General Officer in the army of the King my Father, and that it had been refused me!

I am sorry, much more than sorry to be obliged to break in upon your leisure, and to trespass thus a second time on the attention of your Majesty. But I have, Sir, an interest in my character more valuable to me than the throne, and dearer, far dearer to me than life. I am called upon by that interest to persevere, and I pledge myself never to desist till I receive that satisfaction which the justice of my claim leads me to expect. In these unhappy times the world, Sir, examines the conduct of Princes with a jealous,

a scrutinizing, a malignant eye. No man is more aware than I am of the existence of such a disposition, and no man is therefore more determined to place himself above all suspicion. In desiring to be placed in a forward situation, I have performed one duty to the people of England; and I must now perform another, and humbly supplicate your Majesty to assign those reasons which have induced you to refuse a request which appears to me and to the world so reasonable and so rational. I must again repeat my concern that I am obliged to continue a correspondence which I fear is not so grateful to your Majesty as I could wish. I have examined my own heart—I am convinced of the justice of my cause—of the purity of my motives. Reason and honour forbid me to yield: where no reason is alledged I am justified in the conclusion that none can be given.

In this candid exposition of the feelings which have agitated and depressed my wounded mind, I hope no expression has escaped me which can be construed to mean the slightest disrespect to your Majesty. I most solemnly disavow any such intention; but the circumstances of the times—the danger of invasion—the appeal which has been made to all your subjects, oblige me to recollect what I owe to mine own honour and to my own character, and to state to your Majesty with plainness, truth, and candour, but with all the submission of a subject, and the duty of an affectionate son, the injuries under which I labour, and which it is in the power of your Majesty alone at one moment to redress. It is with sentiments of the profoundest veneration and respect that I have the honour to subscribe myself your Majesty's most dutiful, most obedient Son and Subject,

(Signed) G. P.

Brighton, 2d Oct. 1803.

My dear Brother,

By the last night's Gazette, which I have this moment received, I perceive that an extensive promotion has taken place in the army, wherein my pretensions are not noticed, a circumstance which, whatever may have happened upon other occasions, it is impossible for me to pass by, at this momentous crisis, without observation.

My standing in the army, according to the most ordinary routine of promotion, had it been followed up, would have placed me either at the bottom of the list of Generals, or at the head of the list of Lieutenant-Generals. When the younger branches of my family are promoted to the highest military situations, my birth, according to the distinctions usually conferred on it, should have placed me first on that list.

I hope you know me too well, to imagine that idle inactive rank is in my view; much less is the direction and patronage of the military department an object which suits my place in the state, or my inclinations; but, in a moment when the danger of the country is thought by Government so urgent as to call forth the energy of every arm in its defence, I cannot but feel myself degraded, both as a prince and a soldier, if I am not allowed to take a forward and distinguished part in the defence of that empire and crown, of the glory, prosperity, and even existence of that people, in all which mine is the greatest *stake*.

To be told I may display this zeal solely and simply at the head of my regiment, is a *degrading mockery*.

If that be the only situation allotted me, I shall certainly do my duty, as others will, but the considerations to which I have already alluded entitle me to expect, and bind me in every way to require, a situation more correspondent to the dignity of my own character and to the public expectation.

It is for the sake of tendering my services in a way more formal and official than I have before pursued, that I address this to you, my dear Brother, as the Commander in Chief, by whose counsels the Constitution presumes that the military department is administered.

If those who have the honour to advise his Majesty, on this occasion, shall deem my pretensions among those of all the Royal Family to be the only ones fit to be rejected and disdained, I may at least hope, as a debt of justice and honour, to have it explained, that I am laid by in virtue of that judgment, and not in consequence of any omission or want of energy on my part. (Signed) G. P. W.

His Royal Highness the
Duke of York, &c.

Horse Guards, Oct. 6, 1803.

Dearest Brother,

Nothing but an extraordinary press of business would have prevented me from acknowledging sooner your letter of the 2d instant, which I received while at Oatlands on Monday evening. I trust that you are too well acquainted with my affection for you, which has existed since our most tender years, not to be assured of the satisfaction I have ever felt, and ever must feel, in forwarding when in my power, every desire or object of yours; and therefore will believe how much I must regret the impossibility there is, upon the present occasion, of my executing your wishes of laying the representation contained in your letter before his Majesty.

Suffer me, my dearest Brother, as the only answer that I can properly give you, to recal to your memory what passed upon the same subject soon after his Majesty was graciously pleased to place me at the head of the army; and I have no doubt that, with your usual candour, you will yourself see the absolute necessity of my declining it. In the year 1795, upon a general promotion taking place, at your instance I delivered a letter from you to his Majesty, urging your pretensions to promotion in the army; to which his Majesty was pleased to answer, that before ever he had appointed you to the command of the 10th Light Dragoons, he had caused it to be fully explained to you what his sentiments *were* with respect to *a* Prince of Wales entering into the army, and the public grounds upon which he never could admit of your considering it as a profession, or of your being promoted in the service. And his Majesty, at the same time, added *his positive commands and injunctions* to me, never to mention this subject again to him, and to decline being the bearer of any application of the same nature should it be proposed to me; which message I was of course under the necessity of delivering to you, and have constantly made it the rule of my conduct ever since, and indeed I have ever considered it as one of the greatest proofs of affection and consideration towards me, on the part of his Majesty, that he never allowed me to become a party in this business.

Having thus stated to you, fairly and candidly, what has passed, I must trust you will see that there can be no ground for the apprehension expressed in the latter part of your letter, that any slur can attach to your character as an officer—particularly as I recollect your mentioning to myself, on the day on which you received the notification of your appointment to the 10th Light Dragoons, the explanation and condition attached to it by his Majesty; and therefore surely you must be satisfied that your not being advanced in military rank proceeds entirely from his Majesty's sentiments respecting the high rank you hold in the State, and not from any impression unfavourable to you.

Believe me ever, with the greatest truth, dearest brother,

(Signed) FREDERICK.

His Royal Highness the
Prince of Wales.

Brighton, Oct. 9, 1803.

My dear Brother,

I have taken two days to consider of the contents of your letter of the 6th instant, in order to be as accurate as possible in my answer, which must account to you for its being longer perhaps than I intended, or I could have wished.

I confide entirely in the perronal kindness and affection expressed in your letter, and am, for that reason, the more unwilling to trouble you again on a painful subject, in which, you are not free to act, as your inclination I am sure leads you. But, as it is not at all improbable, that every part of this transaction may be publicly canvassed hereafter, it is of the utmost importance to my honour, without which I can have no happiness, that my conduct in it shall be fairly represented, and correctly understood. When I made a tender of my services to his Majesty's Ministers, it was with a just and natural expectation, that my offer would have been accepted, in the way in which alone it could have been most beneficial to my country, or creditable to myself; or, if that failed, that, at least (in justice to me) the reasons for a refusal would have been distinctly stated: so that the nation might be satisfied, that nothing had been omitted on *my* part, and enabled to judge of the validity of the reasons assigned for such refusal. In the first instance, I

was referred to his Majesty's will and pleasure; and now I am informed by your letter, that, before "he had appointed me to the command of the 10th Light Dragoons, he had caused it to be fully explained to me, what his sentiments were with respect to a Prince of Wales entering into the army."

It is impossible, my dear Brother, that I should know all that passed between the King and you; but, I perfectly recollect the statement you made of the conversation you had had with his Majesty, and which strictly corresponds with that in your letter now before me. But, I must, at the same time, recall to your memory my positive denial at that time, of any condition or stipulation having been made, upon my first coming into the army; and I am in full possession of full and complete documents, which prove that no terms whatever were then proposed, at least to me, whatever might have been the intention; and the communications I have found it necessary subsequently to make, have ever disclaimed the existence of such a compromise at any period, as nothing could be more averse to my nature, or more remote from my mind.

As to the conversation you quote in 1796 (when the King was pleased to appoint me to succeed Sir Wm. Pitt), I have not the slight recollection of its having taken place between us. My dear Brother, if your date is right, you must be mistaken in your exact terms, or, at least in the conclusion you draw from it; for, in the intimacy and familiarity of private conversation, it is not at all unlikely that I should have remembered the communication you made me the year before; but, that I should have acquiesced in, or referred to a compromise, which I never made, is utterly impossible.*

Neither in his Majesty's letter to me, nor in the correspondence with Mr. Addington (of which you may not be fully informed) is there one word, or the most distant allusions to the conditions stated in your letter; and even if I had accepted the command of a regiment on such terms, my acquiescence could only have relation to the ordinary situation of the country, and not to a case so completely out of all contemplation at that time, as the probable or projected invasion of this kingdom by a foreign force, sufficient to bring its safety into question. When the King is pleased to tell me, "that should the enemy land, he should think it his duty to set an example in defence of the country," that is, to expose the only life which, for the public welfare, ought not to be hazarded, I respect and admire the principle which dictates that resolution; and as my heart glows with the same sentiments, I wish to partake in the same danger, that is, with dignity and effect. Whenever his Majesty appears as King, he acts and commands; you are Commander in Chief; others of my family are high in military stations; and even by the last brevet, a considerable number of junior officers are put over me. In all these arrangements the Prince of Wales alone, whose interest in the event yields to none but that of the King, is disregarded, omitted; his services rejected. So that, in fact, he has no post or station whatsoever, in a contest on which the fate of the crown and the kingdom may depend.

I do not, my dear Brother, wonder, that in the hurry of your present occupation, these considerations should have been overlooked. They are now in your view, and I think cannot fail to make a due impression.

As to the rest, with every degree of esteem possible for your judgment of what is due to a soldier's honour, I must be the guardian of mine to the utmost in my power, &c. &c.

(Signed) G. P.

His Royal Highness the
Duke of York.

Horse Guards, Oct. 11, 1803.

My dear Brother,

I have this moment, upon my arrival in town, found your letter, and lose no time in answering that part of it, which appears to me highly necessary should be clearly understood.

Indeed, my dear Brother, you must give me leave to repeat to you, that, upon the fullest consideration, I perfectly recollect your having yourself told me at Carlton-house, in the year 1793, on the day on which you was informed of his Majesty having acquiesced in your request of being appointed to the command of the 10th

10th regiment of Light Dragoons, of which Sir William Pitt was then Colonel, the message and condition which was delivered by you from his Majesty; and which his Majesty repeated to me, in the year 1795, as mentioned in my letter of Thursday last. And I have the fullest reason to know, that there are others to whom at that time you mentioned the same circumstance; nor have I the least recollection of your having denied it to me, when I delivered to you the King's answer, as I should certainly have felt it incumbent upon me to recall to your memory, what you had told me yourself in the year 1793.

No conversation whatever passed between us, as you justly remark, in the year 1796, when Sir William Pitt was promoted to the King's Dragoon Guards, which was done in consequence of what was arranged in 1793, upon your first appointment to the 10th Light Dragoons; and I conceive, that your mentioning in your letter, my having stated a conversation to have passed between us in 1793, must have arisen from some misapprehension, as I do not find *that* year ever adverted to in my letter.

I have thought it due to us both, my dear Brother, thus fully to reply to those parts of your letter, in which you appear to have mistaken mine; but, as I am totally unacquainted with the correspondence which has taken place upon this subject, I must decline entering any further into it.

I remain ever, my dear Brother, with the greatest truth,

Your most affectionate Brother,
(Signed) FREDERICK.

Brighton, Oct. 12, 1803.

My dear Brother,

By replying to your letter of the 6th instant, which contained no sort of answer to mine of the second, we have fallen into a very frivolous altercation upon a topic which is quite foreign to the present purpose.

Indeed the whole importance lies in a seeming contradiction in the statement of a fact; which is unpleasant, even upon the idlest occasion.

I mean to assert that no previous condition to forego all pretensions to ulterior rank, under any circumstances, had been imposed upon me, or even submitted to me in any shape whatsoever on my first coming into the service, and with as much confidence as can be used in maintaining a negative, I repeat that assertion.

When I first became acquainted with his Majesty's purpose to withhold from me further advancement, it is impossible to recollect, but that it was so early as the year 1793, I do not remember, and if your expressions were less positive, I should add, or believe; but I certainly knew it, as you well know, in 1795, and possibly before. We were then engaged in war, therefore I could not think of resigning my regiment, if under other circumstances I had been disposed to do so; but, in truth, my rank in the nation made military rank, in ordinary times, a matter of little consequence, except to my own private feelings. This sentiment I conveyed to you in my letter of the second, saying, expressly, that *mere, idle, inactive* rank, was in no sort my object; but upon the prospect of an emergence, when the King was to take the field, and the spirit of every Briton was roused to exertion, the place which I occupy in the nation made it indispensable to demand a post correspondent to that place, and to the public expectation. This sentiment I have the happiness to be assured, in a letter on this occasion, *made a strong impression upon the mind, and commanded the respect and admiration* of one very high in Government.

The only purpose of this letter, my dear Brother, is to explain, since that is necessary, that my former ones meant not to give the trouble of interceding as my advocate for mere rank in the army. Urging further my other more important claims upon Government would be vainly addressed to any person, who can really think that a former refusal of mere rank, under circumstances so widely different, or the most express waving of such pretensions, if that had been the case, furnishes the slightest colour for the answer I have received to the tenders I have now made of my services.

Your department, my dear Brother, was meant, if I must repeat it, simply as a channel to convey that tender to Government, and to obtain either their attention to or an open avowal of their refusal, &c. &c. (Signed) G. P.

To his Royal Highness
the Duke of York.

Horse Guards, Oct. 13, 1803.

Dear Brother,

I have received your letter this morning, and am sorry to find that you think that I have misconceived the meaning of your first letter, the whole tenor of which, and the military promotion which gave rise to it, led me naturally to suppose your desire was, that I should apply to his Majesty, in my official capacity, to give you military rank, to which might be attached the idea of subsequent command.

That I found myself under the necessity of declining, in obedience to his Majesty's pointed orders, as I explained to you in my letter of the 6th inst. But, from your letter of to-day, I am to understand that your object is *not* military rank, but that a post should be allotted to you, upon the present emergency, suitable to your situation in the State.

This I conceive to be purely a political consideration, and as such totally out of my department; and as I have most carefully avoided, at all times, and under all circumstances, ever interfering in any political points, I must hope that you will not call upon me to deviate from the principles by which I have been invariably governed.

Believe me, my dear Brother, your most affectionate Brother,

(Signed) FREDERICK.

His Royal Highness the
Prince of Wales.

Carlton House, Oct. 14, 1803.

My dear Brother,

It cannot but be painful to me to be reduced to the necessity of further explanation on a subject which it was my earnest wish to have closed, and which was of so clear and distinct a nature as, in my humble judgment, to have precluded the possibility of either doubt or misunderstanding.

Surely there must some strange fatality obscure my language in statement, or leave me somewhat deficient in the powers of explanation, when it can lead your mind, my dear Brother, to such a palpable misconstruction (for far be it from me to fancy it wilful) of my meaning, as to suppose for a moment I had unconnected my object with *efficient military rank*, and transferred it entirely to the view of a *political station*, when you ventured to tell me "my object is *not* military rank, but that a post should be allotted to me, upon the *present* emergency, suitable to my situation in the State." Upon what ground you can hazard such an assertion, or upon what principles you can draw such an inference, I am utterly at a loss to determine. For I defy the most skilful logician, in torturing the English language, to apply with *fairness* such a construction to any word or phrase of mine, contained in any one of the letters I have ever written on this, *to me*, most interesting subject.

I call upon you to reperuse the correspondence. In my letter of the 2d inst. I told you *unequivocally* that I hoped you knew me too well to imagine, that *idle, inactive* rank, was in my view, and *that* sentiment, I beg you carefully to observe, I have in no instance whatever for one single moment relinquished or departed from.

Giving, as I did, all the considerations of my heart to the delicacy and difficulties of your situation, nothing could have been more repugnant to my thoughts, or to my disposition, than to have imposed upon you, my dear Brother, either in your capacity as Commander in Chief, or in the near relationship which subsists between us, the task, much less the expectation, of causing you to risk any displeasure from his Majesty, by disobeying in *any* degree *his* commands, although they were even to militate against myself. But, with the impulse of my feelings towards you, and quickly conceiving what friendship and affection may be capable of, I did not, I own, think it entirely impossible that you might, considering the magnitude and importance which the object carries with it, have officially advanced my wishes, as a matter of propriety, to *military rank and subsequent command*, through his Majesty's Ministers, for that direct purpose; especially when the honour of my character and my future fame in life were so deeply involved in the consideration. For, I must here *emphatically* again repeat, "that *idle inactive* rank was NEVER in my view, and that military rank, with its consequent command, was NEVER *out* of it."

Feeling how useless, as well as ungracious, controversy is, upon every occasion, and knowing how fatally it operates on human friendships, I must

entreat that our correspondence on this subject shall cease here; for nothing could be more distressing to me, than to prolong a topic on which, it is now clear to me, my dear Brother, that you and I can never agree, &c. &c.

(Signed) G. P.

Copy of a Letter from the Right Hon. Henry Addington.

Dated Richmond Park, October 23, 1803.

Sir,

In consequence of some intelligence which has reached me, I am compelled by a sense of duty to your Royal Highness, and to the public, to express an earnest and anxious hope, that you may be induced to postpone your return to Brighton until I shall have had an opportunity of making further inquiries, and of stating the result of them to your Royal Highness.

I have the honour to be, with the utmost deference and respect, Sir, your Royal Highness's faithful and most humble servant,

(Signed) HENRY ADDINGTON.

The Prince of Wales.

ANSWER.

Sir,

By your grounding your letter to me upon intelligence which has just reached you, I apprehend that you allude to information which leads you to expect some immediate attempt from the enemy. My wish to accommodate myself to any thing which you represent as material to the public service, would of course make me desirous to comply with your request; but if there be reason to imagine that invasion will take place directly, I am bound by the King's precise order, and by that honest zeal which is not allowed any fitter sphere for its action, to hasten instantly to my regiment. If I learn that my construction of the word *intelligence* be right, I must deem it necessary to repair to Brighton immediately, &c. (Signed) G. P.

Right Hon. Henry Addington.

NAVAL INTELLIGENCE.

[From the London Gazette.]

Admiralty-office, Nov. 24.

Copy of a Letter from Sir James Saumarez, to Sir Evan Nepean, dated at Guernsey, the 19th inst.

Sir,

I beg you will please to inform my Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, that having detached his Majesty's ship Poulette, on the breaking up of the late gales of wind, to watch the enemy's armaments on the French coast, and to reconnoitre the port of Cherbourg, Capt. Dunbar had the good fortune to fall in with a French convoy of about 30 sail, escorted by a National brig and other armed vessels, standing to the eastward, the whole of which were driven on the rocks of Cape La Hogue; three of them were cut out by the boats of the Poulette, assisted by the Liberty brig, under a smart fire from the shore. I herewith inclose Capt. Dunbar's letter; and cannot too highly commend the zeal and good conduct displayed by him, his officers, and men, on this service, which has been effected without the loss of a single man.

I have the honour to be, &c.

JAMES SAUMAREZ.

His Majesty' Ship Poulette at Sea, Nov. 15.

Sir,

As I was passing the island of Alderney this morning, about a quarter past eleven, I came up with a convoy belonging to the enemy, consisting of about 30 sail, steering to the eastward, escorted by several armed vessels, and in the act of sounding Cape La Hogue. I have great pleasure in acquainting you, that the attack made on them by his Majesty's ship under my command was such as to compel their crews to run them on the rocks, where they became completely exposed to our shot, as well as the dangers incident to that situation.

It is impossible for me to describe sufficiently the zeal and good conduct of those under me: every officer and

man volunteered their services in the boats, by a brig, a lugger, and a sloop. the latter made fast with her cable to the shore, were cut out under a smart fire, while the ship was carried, and anchored within three cables length of the surf, to cover those engaged on this enterprize. As the rest were left dry by the side, I am confident that several are totally lost. Those that fell into our hands are new, and from having sweeps on board, though not armed, evidently intended to aid the invasion. The Liberty took ashore, but the Moucheron could not get up in time. I am most happy to add that not a man was hurt, and the loss of an anchor is all that we experienced.

I have the honour to be, &c.

J. DUNBAR.

Admiralty-office, Dec. 1, 1803.

A Letter from the Hon. W. Cornwallis, Admiral of the Blue, &c. to Sir Evan Nepean, Bart. introduces the following:—

His Majesty's sloop Amlante,
Quiberon-Bay, Oct. 10, 1803.

Sir,

I beg leave to inform you, in obedience to your signal to chace last evening, that part of the convoy, consisting of two ketches and one brig, that were running under the point of St. Guildas, I tacked and stood after them in the sloop I command, and obliged them to run on shore off the mouth of the river Pinnerf, and having considered it very possible to cut them out in the night, as the wind was directly off shore, I dispatched Lieutenant Hawkins, in the six oared cutter, and Mr. Richard Burstal, Master, in the five-oared cutter, armed, on that service, after it became dark, and stood in with the brig, as near as I could go for the shoal, to protect them. About half past nine, P. M. the boats got up to the above vessels, when Lieutenant Hawkins boarded, and took possession of the in-shore vessel, but found her aground, a number of troops along the beach keeping up a heavy fire of musketry on his boat, assisted by two field-pieces, and a party of troops on board the other two vessels (previously embarked from the shore). After cutting her cable, and firing a considerable time on the other vessel near him, found it impossible to do any thing with her, and very properly left her to go to the assistance of the other boat, who had by this time boarded the brig, in defiance of a party of ten or twelve soldiers, with their muskets and sabres, killed six of the troops, hove two overboard, and drove the rest with the crew below. After cutting her cable, finding she was aground, and a light vessel, they returned with both boats on board, not thinking proper, from motives of humanity, to set her on fire, as several people were heard below, supposed to be wounded. I am exceedingly sorry to inform you, on the first fire of the soldiers, one of our men, Henry Brenman, sail-maker, was killed, and in boarding, two seamen wounded, but are in a fair way of recovery. When it is considered that Mr. Burstal, the Master, the serjeant of marines, and five other men boarded this vessel, (with ten soldiers on deck with charged bayonets) and performed what they did, I trust you will see and admire, with me, the very resolute and gallant conduct of Mr. Burstal, and the six brave fellows with him; indeed the officers and crews in both boats deserve the highest praise, though unfortunately out of their power to bring the vessels off, all three being fast aground, within half a cable's length of the beach, and the shore covered with troops, keeping an incessant fire with their muskets and two field-pieces on them. I had the pleasure to see the brig lying on a ridge of rocks this morning, apparently bilged.

I am, &c.

JNO. MASEFIELD.

Admiralty-office, Dec. 10.

Dispatches, of which the following are copies, have been received at this office, from Rear-Admiral Sir John Thos. Duckworth, K. B. Commander in Chief of his Majesty's ships and vessels at Jamaica:

Copy of a Letter from Capt. Walker, of the Vanguard, to Admiral Duckworth, dated off Cape Nicola Mole, Sept. 9.

Sir,

Understanding from Gen. Dessalines that it was his intention to summon the town of St. Marc immediately, which was reduced to the last extremity, I was strongly induced to urge him not to put the garrison to death, which he consented to, and I stipulated with him, that, if they surrendered, he

should march them round to the Mole in safety, and that I should appear off the Bay, and take possession of the shipping, one of which I knew to be a ship of war.

I received General Dessaline's dispatches about eight o'clock at night of the 31st of October, and got under weigh at one A. M. At daylight we chased a man of war brig off St. Marc, but the wind being light and partial, she got into that place: in the afternoon we perceived a flag of truce coming out, but a heavy squall of wind and rain obliged them to return. The following morning they came on board, and brought a letter from General D'Henin, which I answered by making several distinct propositions, and sent them in the ship's boat as a flag of truce, with an officer, and Mr. Cathcart had the goodness to take charge of them. About five o'clock the same day, the General himself came on board in the boat, and we agreed to a Convention. The next day, and part of the night, we were busily employed in effecting the embarkation of the garrison, &c. and the whole being completed, Gen. D'Henin and his Staff came on board the Vanguard at three o'clock, A. M. on the 4th, and we made sail out of the Bay. The situation of this garrison was the most deplorable it is possible to imagine; they were literally reduced to nothing, and long subsisted on horse-flesh. I forgot to mention that, on the 1st, we captured the same schooner we had taken on the 26th past, with 25 barrels of flour, going to St. Marc, which I took out, and transferring her people, with 15 soldiers she had on board, to a small sloop we took at the same time, sent her away, and kept the schooner, as she might be eventually useful to us; and she is the vessel I have made over to Gen. d'Henin.

The vessels delivered to us consist of the Papillon corvette, pierced for twelve guns, but only mounting six, having fifty-two men on board, commanded by Mons. Dubourg, Lieutenant du Vaisseaux; the brig Les Trois Amis, transport, nothing in; and the schooner Mary Sally, who has between forty and fifty barrels of powder. Gen. D'Henin has given me regular receipts for the garrison, which amounts in all to eight hundred and fifty men.

I have further to inform you, Sir, that on the 5th we captured the National schooner Le Courier de Nantes, of two guns and four swivels, and 15 men, commanded by an Ensign de Vaisseau, from Port au Prince, with a supply of thirty barrels of flour, and sundry other articles, for St. Marc. I enclose a weekly account; and have great satisfaction in stating, that we are almost well again, not one of the men who came from the hospital has died.

I have the honour to be, &c.

JAS. WALKER.

Shark, Port Royal, Jamaica, Sept. 29.

Sir,

His Majesty's ship Pelican having been employed these eight weeks in watching the port of Aux Cayes, Capt. Whitby writes me, on the 21st inst. that the General of Division Brunette, has sent off Brigadier-General Le Fevre, to propose taking off this garrison, but as it appeared that the numbers are beyond what the vessels in the harbour, with the assistance of the Pelican, could effect, Captain Whitby, (of whose assiduity I cannot speak too highly), agreed on an armistice of ten days to communicate with me, and though I had in some degree anticipated the want by sending the Pique on that service, I have in consequence added the Theseus, and am in expectation that, before the sailing of this packet, I shall have to request that in addition to this, you will communicate to the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty the capitulation of the garrison.

I am, &c.

J. T. DUCKWORTH.

Copy of a Letter from Capt. Bligh, of the Theseus, to Admiral Duckworth, dated Port Dauphin, St. Domingo, September 8.

Sir,

Having found extreme difficulty in preventing small vessels from passing into Cape Francois with provisions from the little ports on the northern part of the island, in consequence of their finding a safe retreat from our pursuit under the batteries of Port Dauphin, and conceiving that port to be of the utmost importance to the enemy, I deemed it necessary to make some efforts for the reduction of the

place, and the capture of a ship of war at anchor there. As soon as the sea breeze this morning rendered it possible for the enemy's frigates to leave their anchorage, I proceeded to Manchermel-Bay, leaving the Hercule and Cumberland on their station.

The water being sufficiently deep to allow me to place the ship within musket-shot of Fort Labouque, situated at the entrance of the harbour, our fire was so well directed, that it was impossible for the guns of the battery to be pointed with any precision, the colours of which were struck in less than half an hour. Another fort in the harbour, and the ship, being the next objects of our attention, the Theseus entered the port with the assistance of the boats; and having fired a few shot at the ship of war, she hauled her colours down, and proved to be La Sagesse, mounting 20 eight-pounders on the main-deck, and eight four-pounders on the quarter-deck and forecastle, commanded by Lieutenant J. B. Barnetche, and having only 75 men on board.

The commander conceiving the place no longer tenable after the loss of the ship, and being under some apprehension of being exposed to the rage of the Blacks, whom he considered as a merciless enemy, claimed British protection, and surrendered the fort and garrison at discretion. Having spiked the guns, and destroyed the ammunition, the garrison and inhabitants, many of whom were sickly, were embarked and landed under a flag of truce at Cape Francois. Being informed by the prisoners, that their General Dumont and his suite had fallen into the hands of the Blacks, and that they were in the most imminent danger, I was induced, from motives of humanity, to solicit their freedom from the Chiefs of those people; and I had the satisfaction of being immediately complied with: they accompanied the rest of the prisoners into Cape Francois.

I am, &c.

JOHN BLIGH.

Copy of a Letter from Capt. Wood, of the Acasta, to Admiral Cornwallis, dated at Sea, off Ushant, Dec. 3.

Sir,

In pursuance of your orders, at daybreak, on the 2d of October, in lat. 48. deg. 19 min. and long. 21 deg. 30 min. west, we fell in with, and, after a chace of 45 hours, captured the French privateer L'Avanture, of Bourdeaux, of 20 guns and 140 men, with her two prizes, the Royal Edward and St. Mary's Planter, both of the Jamaica convoy. This privateer was laying to to take possession of the Jane, another of the convoy, and a fourth in sight.

I have the honour to be, &c.

J. A. WOOD.

Copy of a Letter from Capt. Maitland, of the Boadicea, dated at Sea, Nov. 25, to Admiral Cornwallis.

Sir,

I have the honour to inform you, that last night, Cape Finisterre bearing N. E. distance eight leagues, his Majesty's ship under my command captured the French National lugger La Varour, commanded by Monsieur Bigot, Lieutenant de Vaisseau, 43 days from St. Domingo, having a Commissaire de Marine on board, charged with dispatches from Gen. Rochambeau at Cape Francois. She is a very fast sailing vessel, coppered, and pierced for 16 guns, had 12 six-pounders, mounted, ten of which were thrown overboard in chace, and 92 men on board.

I have the honour to be, &c.

J. MAITLAND.

CAPTURE OF BERBICE.

[From the London Gazette.]

Downing-street, Nov. 29, 1803.

A DISPATCH, of which the following is a copy, was this morning received at the office of the Right Hon. Lord Hobart, one of his Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State, from Gen. William Grinfield, commanding his Majesty's troops in the Windward and Leeward Caribbee Islands:

Starbrock, Demerara,
Sept. 27, 1803.

My Lord,

It is with real satisfaction I have the honour to acquaint your Lordship, with

my having this day received Lieut.-Colonel Nicholson's report of the surrender by capitulation of the colony of Berbice, and its dependencies, to the British arms. The report of Lieut.-Colonel Nicholson, containing the summons and capitulation, is herewith transmitted. I cannot speak too highly of the conduct of that officer: I must likewise beg leave to express my entire satisfaction with the conduct of the officers and men in this expedition. I have the honour to send these dispatches to your Lordship, by the Deputy Adjutant-General to this army, Captain Harvey, whose state of health, I am sorry to say, requires the European climate; to him I beg to refer you for any particulars I may have omitted to mention.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) W. GRINFIELD, Lieut.-Gen.

Right Hon. Lord Hobart.

New Amsterdam, Berbice, Sept. 28, 1803.

Sir,

Agreeable to your orders of the 19th inst. I proceeded with the troops under my command, and arrived off the river Berbice on the 23d inst. in the morning, where ships of war and transports came to anchor; as it was from thence Capt. Bland and myself agreed to send Brigade Major Armstrong and Lieut. Pardoe, in a flag of truce, with a summons to the Provisional Government, the naval and military commanders, to surrender the colony of Berbice to his Majesty's forces under our command. The flag of truce returned early the next morning, having on board the Provisional Government, a Captain of Artillery, and a Lieutenant of the Batavian Navy, to treat for the surrender of the colony, which was done, and the Articles of Capitulation signed; but as the Commandant of the Batavian troops would not sanction the surrender, without consulting the officers under his command, it was agreed that the Netley schooner, with the smallest of the transports, should pass over the Bar, there anchor, and wait until the flag of truce returned from the fort with the Commandant's answer, which not arriving as soon as was expected, the Netley and the transports got under weigh, and were proceeding to pass the forts, when the flag of truce returned with a Captain of Artillery, to signify the Commandant's approval of the terms, but requesting the British troops might not land until this day, which was complied with, and they remained on board the vessels, at anchor off the town, until noon this day, when the troops landed and took possession of the forts, &c. and the Batavian garrisons, consisting of upwards of 600 men, were made prisoners. The steady and active co-operation of Captain Bland, and the officers, seamen, and marines employed on this service, demand my warmest acknowledgments; and it is my duty to report to you how much I am satisfied with the zeal and active exertions of Lieut.-Col. M'Creagh, of the 7th West India regiment, and all the officers and every individual of the corps employed on this service. I am engaged in preparing the returns of ordnance and stores of every description found in the enemy's forts and magazines, which I shall have the honour of presenting to you on my return to Demerara, which I expect will be in three days from this day. Herewith I inclose a copy of the Summons and Articles of Capitulation, and have the honour to remain, &c.

(Signed) ROB. NICHOLSON.

Lieut.-General Grinfield, Commander of the Forces, &c.

[Then follows the Summons to the Governor of the Colony of Berbice, with the Answer and the Capitulation, and likewise the Capitulation of Demerara and Issequibo. There were in the colonies of Demerara and Issequibo, about 900 Dutch troops in all, and in Berbice about 600.]

Admiralty-office, Nov. 29, 1803.

Dispatches, of which the following are copies, have been received at this office from Commodore Hood, Commander in Chief of his Majesty's ships and vessels at the Leeward Islands.

Hornet, Demerara River, Sept. 27.

Sir,

It is with the greatest satisfaction I have the honour to acquaint you, for the information of the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, that, in concurrence with Lieut.-General Grinfield, the troops for the expedition to

this valuable colony were embarked at Barbadoes, on the 31st of August, on board his Majesty's ships Centaur, Chichester, and Alligator, and Brilliant transport, with the Heureux and Netley; also several small vessels, having military stores, &c. We put to sea the next morning, but from the light baffling winds, and a strong N. W. current, we did not arrive to our anchorage at the appointed rendezvous, a few leagues to the windward of the River, until the evening of the 18th. The Netley, Lieutenant Lawrence, was sent forward with Mr. Casey, a gentleman well acquainted with the coast, to endeavour to get information, and procure a number of colony boats, calculated for our service; and we had the good fortune to find, by the exertions and attention of this officer, with the very useful services of the before-mentioned gentleman, our wishes were fulfilled, and twenty-four boats ready, in three fathoms water, to receive the troops. The moment we anchored, a flag of truce was dispatched to the Governor of Demerara and Issequibo with a summons, and orders to wait one hour only. The Centaur and Chichester, not being able to approach nearer the shore, the troops were early the next morning removed to the small vessels, and all ready in the evening, waiting the event of the flag, which, detained by strong winds, did not return till the following morning, with a deputation from the colony, when terms were agreed on. The Hornet, which was lying off the Bar, blockading the port, entered the river in the evening, with the Netley and a body of troops; when possession was taken of Fort William Frederick, the Hippomenes, a ship pierced for eighteen guns, fourteen only mounted, belonging to the Batavian Republic; and the colonies of Demerara and Issequibo, were given up to us the next day at twelve o'clock. The Governor not being able to treat for Berbice, our further dispositions and arrangements, on signing the capitulation, were immediately made; and Capt. Bland, of the Heureux, with the Alligator and Netley, and Brilliant transport, having on board a detachment of the troops, under Lieutenant-Colonel Nicholson, and the marines of the squadron, were sent against Berbice, the result of which I have the honour to forward herewith, and am, Sir, &c.

SAM. HOOD.

Sir Evan Nepean Bart.

Hornet, Demerara River, Sept. 27.

Sir,

I have the pleasure to enclose you a copy of a letter from Capt. Bland, of his Majesty's ship Heureux, giving an account of the surrender of the colony of Berbice to the King's forces; too much praise cannot be given to that Officer and Lieutenant-Colonel Nicholson, for their able and judicious conduct. I have also much gratification in repeating the cordial good understanding that has existed between the land and sea forces, and whose unremitted attention and exertions on all occasions by the officers and men, deserves the highest approbation of their superiors. Captain Hunt, whose attentive services I have constantly experiently experienced, is the bearer of this dispatch, and will be able to give their Lordships any further particulars.

I have the honour to be, &c.

SAM. HOOD.

Sir Evan Nepean, Bart.

Heureux, off Berbice, Sept. 27.

Sir,

I am happy to inform you that his Majesty's forces are in possession of the valuable colony of Berbice; to give you the first information, I dispatched Major Crozier, of the marines, by land, whose party I landed at the desire of Lieutenant-Colonel Nicholson. The Provisional Government and Court of Police, sent off their deputies to answer the summons sent them to surrender, and agreed to the capitulation, which I enclose with the summons. The garrison thought proper not to join, nor did they give an answer, till we arrived with the British land and sea forces, nearly within gun-shot of their works. Seeing we were determined, a boat was hurried off to inform us they would surrender, if we would wait till next day, which was agreed to, on our being allowed to go into the harbour that night, and take possession of the shipping, which consists of a very fine National schooner, the Serpent, and several large merchant ships. From the vigorous exer-

tions and animation of all, and the dispositions made by the Lieutenant-Colonel, I have not a doubt every thing must have fallen in a storm.

I am, Sir, most respectfully,
Your obedient humble servant,
LOFTUS OTWAY BLAND.

Commodore Samuel Hood, &c.

Return of the Shipping found in the River Demerara.

Hippomenes Batavian corvette, pierced for eighteen guns; Sophia, a ship claimed as English property; Rotterdam, ditto; Diana, ditto; Elbe, detained by the Dutch before our arrival, under British colours; Nile, ditto; Admiral Kingsbergen, a ship, Dutch property; Aurora, ditto; Leesfield, ditto; Maria, ditto; Wilhelmina, ditto; Boodes Welseeren, ditto: Wilhelmina, ditto.

At Berbice.——Serpent National schooner, and five merchant vessels.—Total.—Nineteen.

IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

Wednesday, Nov. 30.

THEIR Lordships met at four o'clock, pursuant to adjournment. The Lord Chancellor having read his Majesty's answer to the Address, voted on Tuesday se'nnight, it was ordered to be entered on the Journals of the House.

Monday, Dec. 12.

Lord HAWKESBURY moved the second reading of the Irish Habeas Corpus Suspension Bill, and as he should have to make a similar motion as to the Martial Law Bill, the arguments which he should have to adduce in support of the former, he wished to be regarded as equally applicable to the latter. He admitted that the power given by these measures should be delegated only in a case of the strongest necessity, and, when so given, that they should not be exercised but under the sanction of a similar urgency. That such a necessity now existed his Lordship inferred from the rebellion of 1798, and from the continued spirit of disaffection in a certain class of the population of Ireland, from that period, until it again broke into open insurrection on the 23d of July. The Ministers were actuated by the most rigid attention to the second part of his position, he contended to be evident from the fact that martial law had been resorted to in one instance only, and that in every other case the conspirators of the 23d of July had been tried with the most scrupulous respect to the ordinary forms of justice. The power of which Government now demanded the continuance was essentially necessary to the suppression of rebellion; perhaps the very knowledge that such a power was vested in them might prevent the necessity of exercising it.

Lord SUFFOLK assented to the urgency of the measures now proposed, but conceived that there never could be any tranquillity in Ireland until there were a complete redress of its grievances.

The Marquis of SLIGO spoke in support of the two bills. He regarded the insurrection of the 23d of July, though differing in means and extent, as identified in object and character with the rebellion of 1798.

Lord GRENVILLE argued that no parliamentary ground had been stated for their Lordships assent.—His Majesty's speech stated that tranquillity had been restored in Ireland. The urgency, therefore, under which Ministers were invested with extraordinary powers, must be supposed to be at an end, unless some new facts were brought forward in justification of their continuance. He could have wished that the noble Secretary had argued the two bills separately, as he could easily conceive that there might be good reasons for suspending the Habeas Corpus, which could not bear out the expediency of enacting Martial Law. In fact, the merit assumed by the noble Secretary of the late traitors having been tried by the Civil Courts, clearly proved that the country was not in such a state as that its tranquillity could be insured by nothing short of Martial Law. Such was his view as a Member of Parliament; though as a private individual, speaking from his own knowledge, he must admit the necessity of having recourse to a remedy beyond the ordinary forms of law. Placed, therefore, by the want of all information on the part of Ministers,

in the situation of voting, if he should at all vote, for the measure, contrary to the dictates of his parliamentary duty, or of incurring, by voting against it, the odium of wishing to deprive his Majesty of powers, perhaps necessary for the suppression of rebellion, he should abstain from giving his assent or dissent to the question.

The LORD CHANCELLOR justified the allusions made in the King's Speech to the restoration of tranquillity in Ireland, and contended that the present peaceable state of the country was to be attributed to the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act, and the renewal of Martial Law.

The two Bills were then read a second time.

Tuesday, Dec. 13.

On the motion for the third reading of the Bank Restriction Bill,

Lord GRENVILLE said, that he did not mean to oppose the Bill under the present circumstances of the country, and considering that it had been so often adopted by Parliament. He was afraid, however, that it was owing to the frequency of its adoption that it had been almost a matter of course to pass it. He did not, for one, regard it in so light a manner. He could not conceal from himself that though it had first been introduced in a period of great difficulty, and to remedy a temporary inconvenience, it had itself been productive of much evil; never, till now, had the issue of Bank and private paper extended to such an enormous amount, as not merely to enter into great commercial speculations, but into almost all the transactions of private life. He was afraid that the continuance of the measure would produce the very mischief which Government intended to guard against in the contemplation of invasion. He did not wish to alarm the public upon this topic, but it was better to alarm them now, than when the remedy should be too late. The best security against the inconveniences which would attend that event, would be to have the cash circulation of the country gradually restored; and on this account he thought that individuals, instead of being condemned as they had been in another place, should be praised for what had been called hoarding. The clamour attempted to be raised on this point was precisely of the same nature as that which had been directed against the farmers during the late scarcity. His Lordship, after further expatiating on the evils resulting from an excessive paper circulation, suggested, with a view of giving increased confidence to what it might be deemed expedient for commercial facilities to retain, that a Committee should be appointed to enquire into the sufficiency of the country banks, and to propose a plan of reciprocal guarantee between them, the Bank of England, and the public. As Parliament was generally supposed to be on the point of adjourning for the recess, he would not enter into any of the details which occurred to him in relation to such a plan.

Lord HAWKESBURY admitted that some evils had arisen from the restriction of the cash payments of the Bank, but the question at present was, whether greater evils would not be incurred by suddenly removing it after so long a continuance. The private paper in circulation his Lordship also admitted to be inconveniently great, but he contended that it was not to be attributed to this Bill, but to the increased aggregate of the commercial and agricultural wealth of the country.

Lord KING argued, that gold and silver had been depreciated by the extensive issues of the paper circulation, which had increased, for the Bank of England alone, since the year 1796, about seven millions; the average circulation of the Bank before that time having been ten millions and a half; whereas, on the 20th of November last, it amounted to 17,930,000l. From this circumstance had proceeded the deterioration of the silver coin in Britain, and in a much greater degree in Ireland.

The Duke of NORFOLK thought that the Bank should have been satisfied with continuing the restriction from Session to Session, instead of prolonging it during the war.

Lord HAWKESBURY assured the noble Duke, and the House, that the measure was not proposed at the request of the Bank Directors.

The Bill was then read a third time, passed, and returned to the Commons.

Thursday, Dec. 15.

The royal assent was given, by commission, to fourteen public and private Bills. Among the public Bills were the Irish Habeas Corpus Suspension

Bill, Martial Law Bill, Distillery Bill, Provision Bill, and Promissory Note Bill, the Bank of England Restriction Bill, Malt Duty Bill, and Portugal Wine Bill.

Friday, Dec 16.

On the Order of the Day for the second reading of the Volunteer Regulation Bill,

Earl SUFFOLK rose to make some observations on the Bill. He stated that, had his advice relative to the election of a Military Committee been followed, what he had to say would with greater propriety have been addressed to that Committee than to their Lordships. As it was, he approved of the Volunteer system. He thought that, though they could never supply the place of a regular force, they would prove themselves of the most essential consequence whenever their exertions should be called forth. His opinion of the efficiency of the volunteers he built not on the general observations which he had made, but on the particular experience which the Volunteers in his own district had afforded him. Though these Volunteers had been drilled only by a serjeant and corporal of marines, he had no hesitation in declaring, that at the time they were inspected by the reviewing General, they were in an equal state of discipline as any regular regiment would have been after having been drilled for the same period; and he most solemnly declared, that he would have had no more hesitation in leading them against the enemy than he had in leading two regiments of Guards whom he led against the enemy in America. He disapproved, however, of over drilling. Volunteers ought not to be sated, by being too often called away from their private concerns. Neither did he approve of the appointment of field officers or majors. Many captains and other officers would, he was convinced, take umbrage at such appointments; and he was convinced the corps would be equally well trained without them.

Lord GRENVILLE said, that it was not his intention at present to enter into any discussion of the general point connected with the present Bill. He hoped to have an early opportunity of doing so immediately after the recess. He thought, however, that the present Bill, so far from removing the incongruities in the two Bills which it was meant to explain, tended to widen and increase them. In the one Bill, only five days service were required to exempt from the Militia, and in the other twenty or twenty-four days service, it was impossible to say which, to exempt from the Army of Reserve. By the present Bill, those different clauses were not, as they ought to have been, repealed, and a general explanatory clause enacted in their stead, but a new clause, in addition to them, was introduced. His Lordship reprobated the idea of military elections of officers, or of the adoption of military committees. Such, he ventured to say, had been the cause of the overthrow of the French monarchy.

The Duke of CLARENCE entirely concurred in the sentiments as to the importance of the subject, and in the general principles laid down by a noble Lord then in his view (Lord Grenville). He thought, however, that this was not a period for discussing a question of such magnitude. The less, therefore, that was said on the subject, the better.

The Bill was then read a second time, and ordered to be committed.

Saturday, Dec. 17.

The Duke of NORFOLK introduced a Bill for exempting clergymen from arrest while in the exercise of their parochial duties. It was read a first time, and ordered to be printed.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Monday, Nov. 28.

Mr. Alderman COMBE wished to know from the Hon. Gentleman on the Treasury Bench (Mr. Vansittart) whether there was any intention on the part of Ministers to introduce a Bill for simplifying and explaining the Income Property Act of the last Session. The Act was so very intricate and complex, that he was sure he would stand excused for putting the question.

Mr. VANSITTART replied, that he had received no intimation of the kind alluded to by the Hon. Gentleman: on the contrary, he understood it to be the determination of Ministers to proceed on the estimates as they now stand, for the present year, in order by a general Bill next year, to embrace and do away all the difficulties complained of. These difficulties could not be overcome until they were generally known, and Ministers had

adopted this method of ascertaining their precise nature and extent.

Wednesday, Nov. 30.

Mr. Addington moved, that the several Acts suspending the issuing of cash by the Bank of England, be read.

The Acts having been accordingly entered as read,

Mr. Addington stated, that it was by no means his intention to detain the House on the present occasion at any length. When the last Bill was introduced, a considerable degree of opposition took place, and discussions important and interesting arose. Notwithstanding, however, he had never yet heard any doubt expressed of the expediency of the measure, or even the most distant idea against continuing the restriction on the Bank during a period of war. He had the satisfaction of stating, that during all the period of the restriction, the credit of the Bank had been conspicuous, and entirely unimpaired; and to the caution the Bank had uniformly practised in its dealings, the public were singularly indebted. He had also to state, that the Bank had not, in any degree, availed itself of the restriction, by issuing notes beyond the extent of its capital. This was a subject on which he could sincerely congratulate the House. At the same time it was proper to state, that it was essentially necessary the House should be in possession occasionally of the number of notes in circulation by the Bank. He concluded by moving for leave to bring in a Bill for continuing the said Acts for a time to be limited.

Leave was then given to bring in the Bill.

Thursday, Dec. 1.

Sir W. Scott stated, that, in the last Session of Parliament, a Bill had been introduced for encouraging the residence of stipendiary curates on their cures. The Bill had, however, been thrown out, on account of a money clause, which originated in the House of Lords. It was highly proper that a measure so essential to the well-being of that respectable class of the clergy should not be suffered to remain dormant, and he should move for leave to introduce the same kind of Bill once more, divested of the clause which had caused its failure, but containing provisions to the same effect. He concluded by moving for leave to bring in a Bill for encouraging the Residence of Stipendiary Curates on their Cures. —Leave was given.

Friday, Dec. 2.

Mr. Addington moved the Order of the Day for the House to resolve into a Committee, to consider the expediency of affording temporary relief to such Curates as might be deprived of their livings by the enactment of the statute passed last Session, for the general residence of the Clergy; which being agreed to,

Mr. Addington moved in the Committee, "That a sum not exceeding 8000l. be granted towards the relief of such Curates as may be deprived of their cures, in consequence of the provisions of the Act enforcing the residence of the Clergy."—The resolution was agreed to.

Mr. Secretary Yorke then rose to move for leave to bring in two Bills, one for continuing the Suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act in Ireland, and the other for suppressing rebellion, and preserving the property of his Majesty's loyal subjects in that part of the empire.—Leave was given.

Saturday, Dec. 3.

The Bank of England Restriction Bill was committed. The blank was filled up with the wores, "six months after the ratification of preliminaries of peace." Ordered to be reported on Monday.

Tuesday, Dec. 6.

The Bank of England Restriction Bill was read a third time and passed.

Thursday, Dec. 8.

The Irish Habeas Corpus Act Suspension Bill, the Irish Martial Law Bill, and the East India Bonds Bill, were severally read a third time and passed.

Friday, Dec. 9.

After some preliminary business had been gone through, the House resolved itself into a Committee of Supply.

Mr. Bragge rose to bring forward his motion for the Army Estimates of the year. He began by stating, that as the House had already voted the forces necessary for the service of last year's war, it would not be necessary for him to trespass long upon the House by preliminary details of any length. The first head of public force upon which he deemed it necessary to address the Committee was that of Guards and Garrisons. The amount of the force

voted last year for this purpose was 108,901 men. The number estimated for this year was 167,579 men, making a surplus for the next year of 58,678 men, of which increased number the Army of Reserve formed 39,477 men. Of this number, 10,000 were unattached to any regiments, about 700 had joined the troops of the line, and the remainder were intended to form a distinct battalion. There remained then to account for, of 58,768 men, a number of 12,456: those he accounted for by augmentations made in the Life Guards, the Foot Guards, and several regiments of Dragoons and Infantry, increased from 750 to 1000 men, together with five regiments of Fencibles raised in our North American colonies, and 450 men in the Royal African Corps. The next head was the Staff Officers, which necessarily must have a most considerable increase, from the great augmentation of the public force. The next head was the Volunteer force. The number which he estimated for England was 379,043 men; and Ireland, 94,000; and for the service of the former he estimated the nett expence at 730,000l. The expence for Ireland he did not state, but he said, from the nature of the service, it must be considerably greater than that of England, as it would be necessary to call most, or the greatest part, of that force out for exercise four months in the year The next head to which he would advert was foreign troops to be raised, of which it was the intention of government to raise a considerable number, but of which there is yet no estimate before the House; they were, however, preparing, and nearly in readiness, and he should be ready to answer any Hon. Gentleman any question he might be disposed to ask on the subject. The next head was Barracks, under which, the exceedings, from the existing circumstances of the country, were greatly beyond any former example. The estimates under this head were not yet before the House, but would in due time be laid before it; but should any Member think fit to ask any questions on that subject, he would be ready to answer him. Feeling it unnecessary, in this stage of the business, to trespass further on the attention of the Committee, he concluded by his former motion, that a force not exceeding 129,000 men be granted to his Majesty for guards and garrisons for the ensuing year.

Mr. Windham and Mr. T. Grenville strongly opposed the present volunteer system; which was as ably defended by Mr. Secretary Yorke and Mr. Pitt.

Lord CASTLEREAGH likewise entered into a very elaborate support of the arguments offered by Mr. Yorke against Mr. Windham and Mr. Grenville, and contended there was no sort of foundation for the distorted view which had been drawn by those gentlemen, of the state of the recruiting service; on the contrary, he contended, that within the short space of two months, ending on the 1st of December, during which period only the recruiting had gone forward for the troops of the line from the Army of Reserve, no less than 7500 men had enlisted, a number unparalleled within any similar period. from the most zealous efforts of the ordinary recruiting service. He admitted that the high bounties for the militia substitutes had operated in some degree to diminish the ordinary service of recruiting for the line, but no more than in the proportion of one third part. A Right Hon. Gent. had said, that the volunteer system had locked up the means of recruiting the army, and of increasing the public force; in refutation of which he stated, that an Army of Reserve had been raised, to the number of 40,000 men, during the operation of the volunteer system; which system, instead of locking up or impeding the means of increasing the public force, in his mind considerably forwarded those measures; as, by the familiarising a vast number of men with military habits, and the use of arms, who otherwise would never have thought of a military life, it would tend to excite those feelings, and stimulate that spirit most likely to induce them to enter into the army. He next proceeded to vindicate the charges against his Majesty's Ministers, who were wrongfully accused of inability and lassitude, for using the means put into their hands by parliament, and for using those means which were necessary for public defence; in contradiction to which he stated, that since the breaking out of the war the public force of this country had been increased to a degree utterly beyond any example of history in both countries. The volunteer force in England, of effective men in arms,

rank and file, he stated at 340,000; the volunteer force of Ireland, 70,000; making together four hundred and ten thousand men. The Militia in England he computed at 50,000 men, and that in Ireland at 18,000 men, making together 590,000, exclusive of 18,000 seasea fencibles, which he conceived might be fairly reckoned amongst the land forces, as they were destined to act either by sea or land for the defence of our coast. It was therefore, he trusted, impossible the House would admit that charge to be fair against the Ministers, who had in the short period of eight months increased the effective force of the country to 600,000 men, exclusive of officers. It might be objected that some part of the volunteer force was unarmed, but though it might be considered a delicate point for explanation, he had no objection to a candid statement. The Militia and Regulars of Ireland amounted to 50000, and Volunteers to 70,000 men, were, he said, completely armed. In England the Regulars, Militia included, amounted to 132,000, and 220,000 Volunteers, making in the gross 352,000 men; and including the number in Ireland would make 470,000, completely armed and accoutred with firelocks, besides which there are 25,000 Sea Fencibles armed with pikes, and 95,000 pikes have been issued by the Ordnance in England for additional Volunteers. Besides which, the Government were in possession of depots of arms for any number of troops which the exigency of the times may render it necessary to arm.—That having now taken a view of the land forces of our country, the picture of our naval force was equally flattering. Our ships of war formed a force of 469 for the defence of our coast, to which was added a flotilla of 800 gun-boats, amounting together to 1300 ships, great and small, to encounter the enemy at sea; and with such a force, however formidable be the enemy, he trusted no room would be left for despondency on our part. On the contrary, there was the fullest confidence for ultimate and complete victory.—If there was cause to recommend the spirit of the people at large, he felt a pride also in declaring the spirit of public bodies was not less praise-worthy. The East India Company had found twenty ships of the class of frigates, affording a formidable aid; and the public spirit of the Trinity-House had contributed so effectually to the impregnable defence of the Thames, as to render that frontier in a perfect state of security. Nor had he less cause to praise another important Board in its exertions for public security, namely, the Board of Ordnance. He concluded by recapitulating the leading features of his statement, and expressed a sincere hope that the British Oak would be handed down to future ages, as a monument of the virtue of the British Nation, and its fortitude and vigour for the maintenance of its freedom.

Mr. Fox rose, and supported the arguments of Mr. Windham and Mr. Grenville, but at the same time allowed, that the volunteer forces might be of material service as an inland army, though not of so much importance as a regular army, which had been properly disciplined, and inured to dangers.—it had been said of him, in consequence of his professed belief in the Minister's sincerity as to the Treaty of Amiens, that he was either Nature's fool, or Mr. Addington's fool. He certainly did believe, that the peace was sincerely entered into, and therefore he could not blame the measures which had been taken immediately subsequent to that event for settling a Peace Establishment. The conduct of Ministers, during the recess, was destitute of firmness or consistency. With regard to Ireland, in particular, those qualities were conspicuous in every part of their conduct. Their treatment of General Officers, of acknowledged character, was such, as to shew that they did not consider the reputation of the Commanders as forming an essential part of the military strength of the country. Here he alluded to the recall of his relation, Gen. Fox, who had resigned in consequence of the fluctuation of the Counsels of the Irish Government; and contended, that in the insurrection of the 23d of July, the Lord Lieutenant had been taken by surprise, and that no means had been preconcerted for frustrating that attempt. There was another topic to which he would advert for a few moments. That topic was the degrading situation, as to the military rank, in which his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales was placed. He was as averse as any man from trenching

on the Royal Prerogative; but the exercise of that prerogative must be ever regarded as the result of the advice of Ministers, and as such, formed a just ground of parliamentary enquiry. He was totally at a loss to conjecture what valid reason could be assigned for preventing the first Prince of the Blood Royal from rising to a higher rank than that of Colonel. He did not wish to see a British Prince kept in the inactive state of those of the Eastern nations.

Mr. ADDINGTON professed himself, if the term was to be applied, to be as great a fool as the Hon. Gentleman had been represented, as to his belief in the sincerity of the French Government with respect to the Treaty of Amiens. He then conceived that it was the true interest and policy of that Government to cultivate peace with this country. But looking to that view of their disposition more than to any conviction of their general good faith, he thought that a much larger peace-establishment should be maintained than we had formerly been accustomed to; and the fact was, that the reduction in the regulars did not exceed 7000 men, of whom 3000 were invalids. He then slightly adverted to what had fallen from the preceding speaker, on the recall of the Commander in Chief in Ireland, and argued, that that measure no more implied, in itself, any censure on his conduct, than the recall of Sir Ralph Abercrombie had thrown any imputation on his character.—Both measures had been occasioned by imperious circumstances, which did not imply any censure in either case. As to the Prince of Wales, he would repeat what he had stated on a former occasion, that nothing but the express commands of his Majesty, or the unanimous resolution of that House, could induce him to enter into any explanation on the subject of the demand of his Royal Highness, and the motives which led to their rejection. He might, however, ask, why the Right Hon. Gentleman had not taken up the business in the years 1795-96, when a similar refusal was made by his Majesty.

Mr. Hutchinson, Mr. Pitt, Mr. Addington, Mr. Windham, and Mr. Patton, having then delivered a few observations, the resolutions were agreed to.

Tuesday, Dec. 18.

The House went into a Committee on the Volunteer exemption Bill.

Mr. Secretary YORKE stated, that as the House had not been very fully attended on Saturday last, when he moved for leave to bring in the Bill, he should now restate its object. It was for the purpose of clearing up, explaining and defining, the several exemptions from the ballots for the Militia and Army of Reserve. The last return for the Militia had been made on the 21st of September, and considerable difficulty had been experienced in returning those corps, as entitled to the exemption, which had not got arms. Pikes were offered to those corps which had not got muskets, and certainly, had they been accepted, the Commandants would have got over the difficulty, by returning their regiments as properly armed. In some cases, however, certain corps were wholly unsupplied; but in such a case the Commandant might have made a special return. He proposed by the Bill not to allow any exemption, unless in the cavalry the Volunteers were drilled four days, and in the infantry eight days, in the period of four months; and that the returns should be made three times a year. Exemptions, therefore, could only be suffered on that ground. He was happy, however to state, that there was not one Volunteer Corps that did not exercise twenty days, and more than would be imposed upon them by the Bill.

Mr. PITT observed, that it seemed strange in the Hon. Secretary to assert that, had the corps received pikes, they might have been returned as properly armed. He could not reconcile such an idea to the fact, that these regiments were raised under a statute by which they were to be armed with muskets. If they were to be exempted because they were armed with pikes, they might as well be armed with pitchforks or sticks. He had seen a circular letter from the Secretary of State on the subject, which observed, that unless the corps were drilled, and in possession of muskets, they could not claim any exemption whatever.

Mr. ROSE confirmed Mr. Pitt's statement, by instancing the New Forest Rangers as a corps which, from the want of arms, had not been entitled to claim exemption.

Mr. YORKE contended that the Act did not describe what species of arms were to be given to the Volunteer Corps; that was vested in the discretion and pleasure of Government. If it was admitted that a third rank of men ought to be armed with pikes, surely there could be no difficulty in assenting to a proposition for making a certain part of a line Pikemen entirely.

The different clauses were agreed to.

THE THEATRE.

A new opera of two acts, entitled THE CARAVAN, was performed, for the first time, at Drury-lane Theatre, Monday, Dec. 5.

The following are the principal characters:—The Marquis Calatrava, Mr. H. Johnstone; Governor of Barcelona, Mr. Dowton; Blabbo, Mr. Bannister; Captain of the Pirates, Mr. Dignum; the Marchioness Calatrava, Mrs. H. Johnstone; Rosa, Miss De Camp.

This piece is the production of Mr. Reynolds; and the story is as follows:

THE regent of Spain, an usurper, is in love with the Marchioness Calatrava, and sends her husband a prisoner in a caravan to the governor of Barcelona. He gives orders that he shall have no food on the journey; designing thus to kill him. But the driver of the caravan, Blabbo, contrives to share the allowance of himself, and his dog, with the Marquis, and thus preserves him, in the first instance. He afterwards releases him from the prison in the governor's castle, together with the Marchioness and her child, a little boy. A creature of the Regent, having got them again into his power, the Marquis is sent on board a ship, and the Marchioness and her son, are brought into the Governor's palace, where she is told she must return the Regent's passion, or her husband shall be executed, and her child thrown from the top of a rock, in her presence, into the water. She refuses. The child is thrown from the rock. Blabbo passes at that moment, shews the child to the dog, who plunges into the water and saves its life. Pirates, who are introduced into the first scene of the piece, rescue the Marquis. The scenery, music, and decorations are extremely beautiful. The acting of Mr. Bannister, Mrs. H. Johnstone, and Miss De Camp, was of the most exquisite kind. The applause with which it was received was unbounded. Mr. Bannister gave it out for next night (accompanied by the dog) amidst the loudest plaudits.

A new Opera, entitled the ENGLISH FLEET, was performed, for the first time, at Covent-garden Theatre, on Tuesday, Dec. 13.

The words are Mr. T. Dibdin's, a Gentleman who has amused the town with many things of this kind; the music is Mr. Braham's, who has in this Opera made his *debut* as a composer. The fable is said to be taken from Hume's History of England, where it still remains, for Mr. Dibdin has not transplanted it into his present drama. The English Fleet professes to relate something of the history of the Countess de Montfort, who, during her husband's imprisonment, defended his province and castle against his enemies, and at length succeeded by the aid of an English squadron. But this historical incident is very confusedly told in the present Opera, which, as far as relates to fable, has neither beginning, middle, nor end. It exhibits but one situation; the Countess is in the same condition in one act as in another; there is no gradation of plot or variety of incident, but is a rude sketch, in which we hear of great names and sounding titles, who do nothing worthy of themselves or the author. In the characters there is no originality. Braham is the usual operatic lover, Incledon the sea captain, Munden the sailor, and Storace the lively chambermaid. Their excellence in their art is such, that to produce them on the stage is almost enough for a modern author.

From this censure, however, the music of Mr. Braham must be excepted. Its general character is sweetness and simplicity; its defect, sameness and insipidity. The duet in the third act is the only one which displays more than common talents; the other airs, with the exception of the comic songs, which have nothing of lightness or merriment, are cold and *mediocre*.

The English Fleet has, nevertheless, been received with universal applause, and has drawn crowded houses.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

DECEMBER 4.

On Wednesday the Sessions commenced at the Old Bailey.

On Friday morning about two o'clock, a fire was discovered in the long range of auction-rooms, manufactories, and warehouses, between Frith-street and Dean-street, Soho-square. On the first alarm, the manufactory of Jackson and Moser, furnishing ironmongers, and the workshops of Jameson and Willis, coachmakers, appeared to be in flames.

Adjoining to the buildings already on fire, were the large furniture repository of Messrs. Hemmings and Westwood, extending from Frith-street to Dean-street; the school-room of the Frith-street academy, a large auction-room in the rear of Compton-street, and the back warehouses, full of goods, belonging to Mr. Bond, furnishing-ironmonger, also of Compton-street; all of which soon formed one general mass of conflagration. —From these premises the flames were rapidly communicated to the dwelling-house of Mr. Ram, upholsterer, in Compton-street, and to the potatoe warehouse adjoining, both of which houses, together with the back part of Mr. Reid's, the grocer, were consumed.

Besides what is above stated, the back parts of many of the houses in Dean-street, and most of the fronts of the east side of Frith-street have received great injury. The only consolation arising is, that no lives have been lost. A fireman, of the name of Crocker, seeing the front of one of the burning houses give way, took shelter in the door-way of the house No. 18, opposite, but here misfortune overtook him; both of his thighs were broken by the falling brickwork, and the door was completely driven in.

DECEMBER 12.

The American papers, which reach to the 7th of November, contain an account of the opening of the new Congress, and the speech delivered by Mr. Jefferson, the President, on that occasion. It is distinguished for great caution and moderation, and its principal topics relate to the cession of Louisiana to the United States, their territorial and commercial acquisitions, the flourishing state of the revenue, and his own determinations to preserve the strictest neutrality during the present contest between Great Britain and France, an event which he appears sincerely to deplore. The objects treated of in the speech were referred to different Committees. The Louisiana Treaty was discussed in the Senate, with closed doors, and the resolution stating the expediency of passing the necessary laws to complete the execution of it, was carried by a majority of 90 to 25. According to the terms of the Convention, America is to pay to France sixty millions of francs, or about two millions and a half sterling. For effecting this payment, a public stock of nearly twelve millions is to be created, to be redeemed in 15 years.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

Nov. 29.

L. Cohen, Gower's-row, Goodman's-fields, merchant.

J. Thomas, Finch-lane, Cornhill, merchant.

T. Carr, Gomersall, Yorkshire, cotton-spinner.

G. Denton, Kingston-upon-Hull, currier.

E. Whitehouse, Stoke-upon-Trent, Stafford, dealer.

J. Townsend, Ludgate-hill, laceman.

J. Marsden and J. Haywood, Marsden, Yorkshire, cotton-spinners.

J. Wheeler, Blackheath, Kent, miller.

DEC. 3.

J. Moore, Milden-hall, Suffolk, cordwainer.

J. Hoy, Church-lane, St. George, bricklayer.

W. Atkinson, Wortley-mills, Yorkshire, merchant.

T. Curtis, Radford, Nottinghamshire, bleacher.

G. Tinkler and J. Risk, Meard's-court, Wardour-street, leather-sellers.

N. Tanner, of St. Decaman's, Somersetshire, maltster.

V. Busigny and J. Rothwell, Liverpool, merchants.

T. Dowding, J. Lowe, and S. Bishop, Wood-street, hatters.

J. King, Berkeley, Gloucestershire, cordwainer.

P. Poppleton, Almondbury, Yorkshire, drysalter.

W. Pitts, Little Wild-street, Lincoln's-inn-fields, silversmith.

W. Tench, Bilton-mill, Northumberland, miller.
J. Dawes, Camomile-street, mariner.
J. Downie, Old Broad-street, merchant.
W. Felton, Leather-lane, coachmaker.
T. Martin and J. H. Ford, Coleman-street, wool-brokers.
J. Clark, Holton, Suffolk, merchant.

DEC. 6.

J. Fisher, Lancaster, merchant.
F. Monk, Folkstone, Kent, tanner.
H. Clauson, America-square, merchant.
E. Richmond, Charlotte-Mews, St. Pancras, stable-keeper.
J. Shelley, Mile-end-road.
J. Cramer, Royal Spa Gardens, Bermondsey, victualler.
H. Hale, Birchin-lane, oilman.
H. Moore, Ironmonger-lane, merchant.
S. Dutton, Manchester, merchant.
I. Henry, Liverpool, shopkeeper.
J. Briggs, Yarmouth, slopseller.
T. Binless, Basinghall-street, factor.

DEC. 8.

W. Jackson, Hungerford, Berks, grocer.

DEC. 10.

W. Gardner, Newent, Gloucestershire, baker.
D. Fuller, Woodbridge, Suffolk, maltster.
W. Benstead, Halesworth, Suffolk, maltster.
W. Cooper, Nottingham, grocer.
T. Blyth, Birmingham, factor.
G. Blaylock, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, merchant.
T. Lewis, Bristol, merchant.
W. Elkington, Birmingham, grocer.
M. Hansard and S. Leonard, Dover-street, Piccadilly, milliners.
M. Walford, Old-street, soap-boiler.
W. Buck, St. Mary-at-Hill, merchant.
G. Duckett, Somer's Town, merchant.
J. Kennedy, Broad-street, merchant.
T. P. Tuther, Holborn-hill, linen-draper.
W. Thompson, Dean-street, Southwark, and E. Leadbeater, Moor-place, Lambeth, merchants.
J. Sheriff, Blackfriars-road, linen-draper.

DEC. 13.

J. Robinson, Liverpool, provision-merchant.
D. M'Clure, Woodbridge, Suffolk, brandy-merchant.
J. Wotton Bennett, Exeter, dyer.
J. Warwick, Long Buckley, Northampton, taylor.
H. Knowles, Rushworth, Halifax, cotton-spinner.
W. Fletcher, Hoxton, money-scrivener.
T. Clark, Liverpool, sadler.
J. Jackson, W. Lowe, C. Johnson, J. Shufflebotham, J. Johnson, and J. Leigh, Manchester, merchants.
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J. Gill, Naburn, York, draper.
W. Barwell, Yarmouth, brandy-merchant.
C. Burcham, Stowmarket, Suffolk, butcher.
J. Curtis, Boston, Lincoln, innholder.
E. Tovey, North Bradley, Wilts, clothier.
M. Noble, Narrow Wall, Lambeth, merchant.
W. Fell, St. Martin's-lane, taylor.

DEC. 15.

T. Hodgson, Stamford-bridge Lodge, Yorkshire, beast jobber.

DEC. 17.

Samuel Bradbury, Aldersgate-street, banker.
O. Bennett, Bell-yard, Carey-street, taylor.
W. Blacklock, Rathbone-place, dealer in glass.
R. Finnis, Tavistock-street, money-scrivener.
J. Brook Knight, Camomile-street, cordwainer.
C. Pollington, Havant, Hampshire, shopkeeper.
W. Merritt, Blackman-street, stationer.
E. U. Watling, Tooting, Surrey, merchant.
W. Thompson, Manchester, dealer.
J. Windett, Norwich, grocer.
J. Davis, Wallingford, Berks, wine-merchant.
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J. Murray, Portsmouth, sadler.
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Chriſtened,		Buried,	
Males -	11,054	Males -	9709
Females -	9929	Females -	9783
In all	20,983	In all	19,582

Whereof have died,

Under two years	5355	Fifty and ſixty	2044
Between 2 & five	2077	Sixty and ſeventy	1580
Five and ten	790	Seventy & eighty	1038
Ten and twenty	531	Eighty and ninety	482
Twenty & thirty	1329	Ninety & a hundred	64
Thirty and forty	1045	A hundred	1
Forty and fifty	2265		

Increaſed in the Burials this Year 203.

AVERAGE PRICES of CORN,

December 10, 1803.

By the Wincheſter Quarter of 8 Buſhels.

Inland Counties.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middleſex	57	6	32	9	27	2	28	3
Surry	59	4	41	0	26	8	27	4
Hertford	52	2	35	6	22	6	25	0
Bedford	53	1	34	4	21	7	23	7
Huntingdon	49	7	——		20	8	21	2
Northampton	52	4	30	0	22	0	22	0
Rutland	57	0	——		24	6	21	0
Leiceſter	56	6	——		24	5	23	10
Nottingham	60	8	36	0	27	6	25	8
Derby	59	9	——		30	0	23	11
Stafford	56	8	——		29	0	27	6
Salop	48	1	35	4	26	3	24	4
Hereford	47	4	32	0	25	8	24	8
Worceſter	48	11	36	2	27	1	27	0
Warwick	54	5	——		27	9	27	2
Wilts	51	4	——		23	10	22	8
Berks	56	5	——		24	5	26	3
Oxford	52	10	——		22	2	23	11
Bucks	54	6	——		24	10	24	8
Brecon	51	2	32	0	26	0	21	4
Montgomery	49	7	——		25	7	18	7
Radnor	47	1	——		26	5	21	10

Maritime Counties.

Eſſex	56	2	30	6	23	5	28	0
Kent	60	1	——		28	0	29	1
Suſſex	54	10	——		29	10	30	0
Suffolk	51	2	33	0	23	0	23	5
Cambridge	48	3	——		22	5	18	7
Norfolk	51	6	32	2	22	9	22	3
Lincoln	53	10	33	7	25	8	22	1
York	52	2	38	5	25	9	23	7
Durham	51	5	——		29	4	22	3
Northumberland	49	4	37	0	23	10	23	7
Cumberland	55	7	41	8	27	2	21	4
Weſtmorland	57	6	44	0	27	0	23	4
Lancaſter	57	10	——		26	8	27	4
Cheſter	52	11	——		29	3	24	4
Flint	——		——		29	4	——	
Denbigh	57	0	——		28	5	24	10
Angleſea	——		——		21	0	19	6
Carnarvon	55	6	——		25	9	18	0
Merioneth	59	4	47	0	28	8	20	0
Cardigan	52	2	——		20	0	14	0
Pembroke	50	0	——		21	3	17	0
Carmarthen	——		——		20	0	16	2
Glamorgan	55	6	——		26	6	20	5
Glouceſter	50	8	——		24	0	23	8
Somerſet	56	5	——		25	1	23	9
Monmouth	50	5	——		26	4	——	
Devon	59	4	——		27	6	24	11
Cornwall	56	5	——		29	8	23	5
Dorſet	52	10	——		25	3	25	2
Hants	52	10	——		25	7	26	3

Average of England and Wales.

Per Quarter	53	9	35	11	25	5	23	4

December 23—Peck Loaf 3s 3d.

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Days of the Month	Bank Stock.	3 per C. reduced.	3 per C. conſols.	4 per C. Anns.	5 per Ct. Ann. 1797	Navy 5 per Ct.	Long Anns.	Short Anns.	India Stock.	Imperial 3 per C.	Imperial Ann.	Exc. Bills 3½d p. day	Exc. Bills 3d per day	Engliſh Lot. Tic.
28		53 ⅜	54⅛ ⅝	69 ½	88 ⅜	89 ⅛	15 ½	3	166 ½	52 ⅛				
29	144	54 ⅜	55 54⅞	69 ½	88 ⅜	90	15 ⅜	3	163 ½	52 ⅜				
30														
1	144	53 ⅞	shut.	69 ⅜	88 ⅜	90	15 ⅜	3	168 ½	52 ¼	9 ⅛			
2	144 ½	53 ⅞		70	90 ¼	90 ⅛	15 ⅜	3	169 ½	52 ⅜				
3	146 ¼	55 ¼	56⅞ ¾	71 ¼	shut.	92 ¼	16 ¼	3	173	52 ½	9 ⅜			
5	146	55	56⅝ 56	71		91 ½	16	3	172	53 ⅛				
6	147	55	56⅝ 55¾	71 ⅛		91 ½	16 ⅛	3	171 ¾	53 ⅛	9 ⅜			
7		54 ¾	55¼ 56	70 ⅜		91 ⅜	15 ⅞	3		52 ⅞				
8	146	54 ¼	56 55⅞	70 ⅜		91 ¼	16	3						
9	145 ¼	54 ⅜	55⅞ ⅜	70 ½		91 ⅜	15 ⅞	3 ⅛		53				
10		54 ⅜	55⅝ ⅜	70 ½		90 ⅜	15 ⅞	3						
12	145	54 ⅜	55⅝ ⅜	70 ½		90 ⅜	15 ⅞			53 ⅛				
13	145 ½	54 ⅜	55¾ ⅜	70 ½		91	15 ⅞	3						
14	145	54 ⅜	55⅞ ⅜	70 ½		91	15 ⅞			53 ⅛				
15	144 ¾	54 ⅜	55⅝ ⅜	70 ½		91	15 ⅞	3		53	9 ⅛			
16	144	54 ⅜	55⅝ ¼	70 ¼		90 ⅞	15 ⅞			52 ⅞	9 ¼			
17		54 ⅜	55½ ¼	70		90 ⅞	15 ⅞	3			9 ¼			
19	144	54 ⅜	56 55⅞	69 ⅝		90 ⅞	15 ⅞	3						
20	144	55 ⅜	56⅜ 55¾	69 ⅝		90 ¾	15 ⅞	3 ⅛		53 ¼	9 ¼			
21														
22	145	54 ¼	55¾ 56⅛	70 ¼		90 ⅞	16			53 ⅛	9 ⅜			
23	145	54 ¼	56 ⅛	70 ¼		90 ⅞	16	3 ⅛		53 ⅛				
24	144 ¾	54 ⅜	56 ¼	70 ⅛		90 ⅞	16	3		53 ½				
26														
27														

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ERRATA.

Page 137. col. 2, line 3 from the bottom, *read* admire thy pure translucent tide

322, last line but two of the note, *for* Heraudric *read* Herauldrics

399, in the Hygrometer col. day 15, *for* 50 *read* 60; and day 23, *for* 34 *read* 54

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